REPORT RESUMES

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STATE SUPERVISION OF ENGLISH AND READING INSTRUCTION, PROCEEDINGS OF THE COLLEGE PARK CONFERENCE OF STATE SUPERVISORS OF ENGLISH AND READING (UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND, MARCH 7-11, 1966).

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NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

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THE MAJOR ADDRESSES AND PROFESSIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS DEVELOPED BY THE FIVE DISCUSSION GROUPS AT THE CONFERENCE OF STATE SUPERVISORS OF ENGLISH AND READING ARE PRESENTED. THE DISCUSSION GROUP TOPICS WERE PRESERVICE AND INSERVICE EDUCATION, CURRICULUM INNOVATION, "INNOVATIONS AND THE SUPERVISOR," A REPORT ON RECENT RESEARCH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING BY ELDONNA L. EVERTTS, THE DISADVANTAGED, AND RESEARCH IN ENGLISH AND READING. THE FOUR ADDRESSES WERE "A SURVEY OF READING RETARDATION," BY LEON EISENBERG, PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY AT JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, "THE PREPARATION OF LANGUAGE ARTS TEACHERS," BY OLIVE S. NILES, DIRECTOR OF READING, SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS PUBLIC SCHOOLS, "CHILDREN AND POETRY," BY NANCY LARRICK, AND "FACTORS RELATED TO SYMBOLIZATION" BY DR. WALTER B. WAETJEN, ASSISTANT TO THE PRESIDENT FOR ADMINISTRATIVE AFFAIRS, UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND. IN AN EPILOGUE, DR. ROBERT F. KINDER, READING CONSULTANT FOR THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, CONNECTICUT, PRESENTS THE GOALS OF THE ASSOCIATION OF STATE ENGLISH AND READING SPECIALISTS IN FOUR MAJOR AREAS--THE PROMOTION OF SOUND PROGRAMS OF INSTRUCTION THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES, COOPERATION WITH THE U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS, AND PROJECTS DESIGNED TO DEVELOP STUDENTS' THINKING AND LANGUAGE SKILLS. REFERENCES ACCOMPANY EACH ADDRESS. (RH)

STATE SUPERVISION OF ENGLISH AND READING INSTRUCTION

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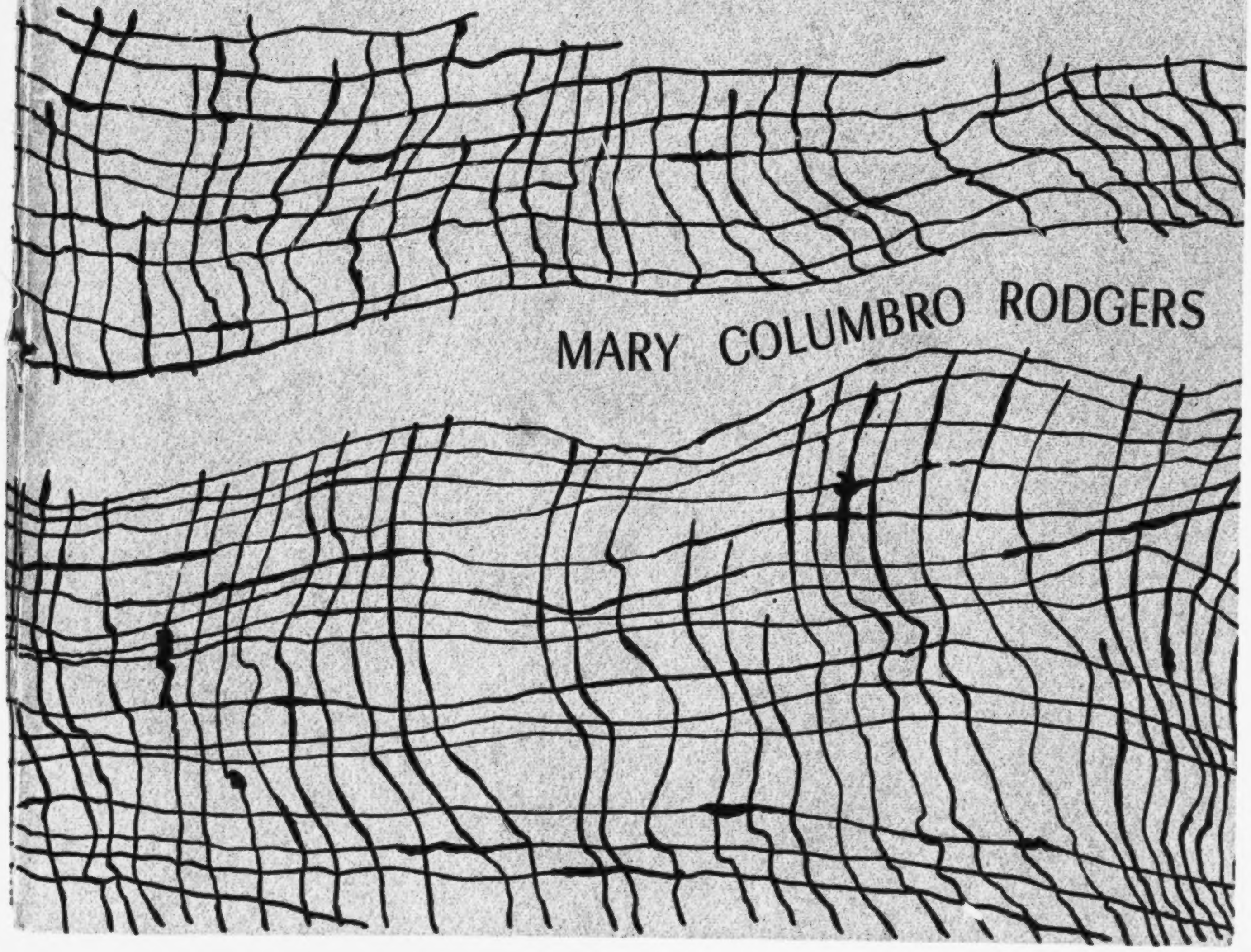

MARY COLUMBRO RODGERS

STATE SUPERVISION OF ENGLISH AND READING INSTRUCTION

PROCEEDINGS OF THE COLLEGE PARK CONFERENCE OF STATE SUPERVISORS OF ENGLISH AND READING

University of Maryland, March 7-11, 1966

Prepared by MARY COLUMBRO RODGERS
University of Maryland

Sponsored by the UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION
in cooperation with the UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
and the NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

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SPECIAL NOTE

Each person privileged to participate in the College Park Conference of State Supervisors of English and Reading acknowledges the unique contribution of the United States Office of Education, the University of Maryland, and the National Council of Teachers of English. The names of all state delegates as well as panel discussants and participants of work groups are listed in the appendix to these *Proceedings.*

Preface

This report summarizes the proceedings of the first Conference of State Supervisors of English and Reading held at the University of Maryland, March 7-11, 1966, sponsored by the United States Office of Education in cooperation with the University of Maryland.

The extension and expansion of the NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT in 1965 provided funds on a matching basis to states for the employment of supervisors of English and reading. In June of 1965 only four states employed a supervisor of reading and twelve states had English supervisors. In March 1966, thirty-eight states could send one or more reading supervisors, and forty-three states could send an English supervisor to participate in the Office of Education sponsored conference.

This conference at College Park provided an opportunity for state leaders in English and reading to become well acquainted with one another's problems, to make recommendations for solving these problems on a national level, and to establish a permanent organization for continuous interstate communication about problems in English and reading.

Work of the College Park Conference was divided into five major categories:

The Leadership Role of State Specialists
Preservice and Inservice Education
Curriculum Innovation
The Disadvantaged
Research in English and Reading

The purpose of these proceedings is to disseminate information and professional recommendations developed by each of the five discussion groups during the conference. The following pages also describe present and projected plans for the K-12 improvement of English and reading. Current trends in curriculum coordination are carefully delineated, and a summary of evaluative techniques used in fifty states is presented. Finally, these proceedings serve as a medium of publication for the valuable addresses of four leaders in the English language arts profession—Dr. Leon Eisenberg, professor of psychology, Johns Hopkins University; Dr. Olive S. Niles, director of reading, Springfield, Massachusetts Public Schools; Dr. Nancy Larrick, author of *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading* and *A Parent's Guide to Children's Education;* and Dr. Walter B. Waetjen, assistant to the president for administrative affairs, University of Maryland.

MARY COLUMBRO RODGERS
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Introduction

History of the Association of State English and Reading Specialists (ASEARS)

In 1964 the state supervisors concerned with English and reading met as a group during the International Reading Association Convention in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. About fifteen persons were present, all concerned with the common problem of improving reading instruction within their states.

Dr. Robert F. Kinder, state supervisor for Connecticut, initiated the meeting and sent invitations to the supervisors and to the Office of Education representative.

Follow-up meetings of this small but active group were held at subsequent professional meetings of the National Council of Teachers of English and at the International Reading Association during 1964 and 1965. A committee was appointed to start plans for an official organization which might serve the growing numbers of state English and reading supervisors. A constitution including purposes, bylaws, and activities began to take form.

When federal aid was extended and expanded for support of English and reading as critical subject areas, and when increasing numbers of states began to employ supervisors for English and reading, the need for coordinating the activities of these supervisors grew. Dr. Kinder kept a roster of state personnel in these subjects and effected a close communication among the states and the United States Office of Education.

Plans for the first USOE sponsored meeting of state English and reading supervisors started early in 1965. A proposal was developed by the University of Maryland, a committee of state supervisors, and the USOE English and reading specialist, Dr. Julia M. Haven, to bring state supervisors together for a working conference at the Adult Education Center, University of Maryland, March 7-11, 1966. At this March conference attended by seventy-six participants from forty-five states, the constitution for establishing the Association of State English and Reading Specialists (ASEARS) was introduced and accepted. A mailed ballot elected the first officers of this organization:

President	Robert F. Kinder, Connecticut
Vice President	Gilbert Schiffman, Maryland
Secretary Treasurer	Lois P. Caffyn, Kansas
Member at Large	Juanita Abernathy, Georgia
Member at Large	Ruth C. Harpel, Montana

The first official meeting of the ASEARS was held in Dallas, Texas, May 4, during the International Reading Association conference. Plans for a newsletter and future meetings were established, and a full membership list was drawn up for purposes of future communication.

ASEARS promises to become a leading force in effecting instructional improvement at national, state, and local levels. The association's main resolution is to work closely with federal program coordinators, with professional organizations, and with colleges and universities engaged in teacher education. Results of this leadership action will be measured by the English language competency of students profiting from new improvements in K-12 English and reading instruction.

Legislative Background for the Improvement of English and Reading

The enactment of the NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT in 1958 provided the first specific legislation for improving instruction in the public schools. Title III of the original Act appropriated funds for upgrading programs in mathematics, science, and modern foreign languages which were classified as critical to the defense of the United States.

The need for equipment, materials, and minor remodeling of classrooms and laboratories took priority; $70 million was originally authorized by the Congress for this purpose. Twelve percent of the amount was set aside for loans to private and nonprofit schools. The state or local district was required to match federal funds dollar for dollar before projects could be approved for expenditures.

In order to make the best use of materials and equipment for instructional improvement, it was recognized that many schools needed leadership through consultant help at the state and local level. The sum of $5 million was originally authorized for states to employ subject specialists as supervisors who could assist the schools within the state in the improvement of their programs. These funds could be used to employ state personnel in related services such as library and audiovisual departments as well. Some of this allotment could also be used for the state administration of Title III, NDEA.

NDEA has been modified three times. Significantly, in 1964, the Act was extended and expanded to include English, reading, history, geography, and civics. Economics was added in 1965. The authorization for acquisition of materials and equipment was also increased, and the amount of money for supervision, related services, and administration of Title III was doubled.

Section 12 of the ARTS AND HUMANITIES ACT of 1965 provides matching grants for the improvement of instruction through minor remodeling and purchase of equipment and materials. This section was placed under the administration of NDEA Title III. This appropriation excludes the employment of state supervisors.

Title XI of NDEA finances proposals for institutes in the eight critical subjects designated by the original Act and its amendments and furthermore provides institutes for teachers of the disadvantaged and for library personnel. Educators apply for acceptance to the institute of their choice directly to the university or college holding the institute. If the applicant is accepted, he is paid a personal stipend of $75 a week, as well as an allowance of $15 weekly for each of his dependents.

The second major legislative act giving support to American schools is the ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT of 1965. This Act includes five titles, each naming a specific emphasis for a certain phase of educational assistance, and each having its own appropriation for carrying out the particular program.

Title I of ESEA (Public Law 89-10) authorized $1.06 billion to give financial assistance to local educational agencies for special educational programs in areas having a high concentration of children from low income families. This money is to help local school districts strengthen and broaden their programs in whatever way the greatest good can be accomplished. Employment of additional staff, purchase of materials, offering of food services, and similar programs have been implemented through this Title. More than 75 percent of the projects under Title I provide additional services for the improvement of reading and communication skills for disadvantaged children.

Title II provides for the purchase of school library resources: textbooks, reference books, films, filmstrips, tapes, charts, maps, and similar instructional media. The first appropriation authorized $100 million for these purchases. Materials were to be housed in a public agency and could be loaned to students and teachers of private and parochial schools for the duration of time usually established for such loans. All materials were to be returned to the local public agency for regular inventory at least annually.

Title III authorized $100 million for supplementary educational centers and services to develop innovative programs and exemplary opportunities for children and teachers. This Title encourages experimentation and creativity in educational planning for improving the educational systems in the nation.

Title IV provides $100 million over a five-year period for educational research and training of research personnel. Twenty-two curriculum and demonstration centers in the English language arts have been established through the Office of Education Bureau of Research. These centers are developing and testing programs related to new concepts and approaches in the teaching of English. Materials from these centers will be available as the projects come to completion during the next three years.

Title V is established for strengthening state departments of education. State departments may use these funds for expanding a variety of programs and projects, to employ additional supervisory personnel at the state level, for school surveys, and for experimentation with special programs in a school district. Under this Title, provision is made for the interchange of personnel from a state to the Office of Education for a period not to exceed two years. The federal government will bear the total cost of this program for the first two years. Thereafter the state will match federal funds to the extent of 50 to 66 percent of the total cost of special grants administered within the state. Title V funds may serve other related purposes within a state, depending upon the delineation of their expressed needs.

The Congress annually appropriates funds for these education acts. The Office of Education distributes written guidelines to assist states in understanding legal regulations and in using the opportunities available to them under these Acts. Information may be secured from the United States Office of Education, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, 400 Maryland Avenue S.W., Washington, D. C., 20202.

JULIA MASON HAVEN
United States Office of Education

The Leadership Role of State Specialists

Members of the Leadership Panel

Dr. Robert F. Kinder, Chairman: English and Reading Consultant, State Department of Education, Connecticut

Dr. Julia M. Haven: English and Reading Program Specialist, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, United States Office of Education

Mrs. Juanita Abernathy: Reading and English Consultant, State Department of Education, Georgia

Dr. Gilbert Schiffman: Reading Supervisor, State Department of Education, Maryland

Proceedings of the Panel

Perhaps at no time in the history of English and reading pedagogy in America has it been more difficult to define the role of instructional personnel in the language arts. Although the role of the classroom teacher is somewhat delineated by the needs of the students and the guidelines of a suggested curriculum, the performance of a state level English and reading supervisor, consultant, or specialist remains both transcendent and amorphous. Today, with the strong financial and professional support offered to states by the federal government, the role of state leaders in the language arts has become increasingly complex. With the unprecedented discovery of new knowledge in the discipline of English, and with the genuine availability of new materials and technological devices for teaching language arts, the role has become increasingly challenging.

At the College Park Conference, state specialists from forty-one states met to define and evaluate the complex role of the new language arts leader. Dr. Robert F. Kinder, representative from Connecticut, opened the panel's deliberations by asking Dr. Schiffman to read a summary of how the conference participants had described their role as state specialist.

DR. SCHIFFMAN: A role emerged which consists of twenty-two different activities. In descending order of frequency, the following eight activities of state leaders were most often cited:

1. Developing and directing inservice programs.
2. Taking part in local and regional workshops.
3. Writing curriculum materials and newsletters.

4. Consulting on federal programs: NDEA; ESEA, Title I; ESEA, Title III; and others.
5. Consulting on state K-12 reading programs.
6. Consulting with classroom teachers of English and reading and with reading clinic directors.
7. Working in summer institutes in reading and English.
8. Developing statewide programs and curriculums in the language arts.

The next thirteen descriptions were cited less frequently but nonetheless report what specialists are actually doing. There is no significance in the order in which I present these points:

9. Conducting school surveys on training and skills of language arts personnel.
10. Directing programs in pupil testing and measurement.
11. Evaluating English and reading programs in counties and districts.
12. Involvement in research projects.
13. Auditing Title III, NDEA proposals.
14. Hosting foreign teachers and students.
15. Evaluating college programs in teacher preparation.
16. Assisting in book selection throughout the state; developing instructional materials centers; upgrading the use of educational media in schools.
17. Serving as consultant to the state department of education public relations committee; being on call for legislative sessions.
18. Coordinating the college preparation of English and reading teachers with on-the-job development in local schools.
19. Conducting courses and seminars for teacher trainers; writing teacher training bulletins.
20. Developing special audiovisual materials to solve unique problems in English and reading.
21. Developing summer school programs for children in various phases of K-12 language arts.
22. Disseminating information pertaining to new programs and new methodology in English and reading throughout the state.

Dr. Kinder then remarked that, in addition to possessing a wide range of responsibilities, the state language arts leader has a unique position; the structure of duties and the complexion of the role result from the individual's ingenuity. He asked the three panelists to describe their own positions and activities. The statements below are drawn from their tape recorded responses.

MRS. ABERNATHY: Since I was the first person in this role in Georgia, my first responsibility was to coordinate all of the efforts in reading and English that were going on in Georgia.

We looked at five things as we coordinated. We had first to look at overall objectives for both the programs: the supervision of the programs, the education of the teachers, inspection services that could be rendered, and then the evaluation. And these are the goals we will continue to work together on in our state. The overall objectives have to do with the improvement of programs: developing better reading programs in all of the schools of the state, continuing the development of curriculum for the areas, and organizing the curriculum in larger pools around the basic ideas that compose the structure of the teaching of the English language arts.

We looked at some specific objectives. For example, in the English area this year we are defining the central issues in the development of an English curriculum. As I move on through the kinds of activities we are engaged in, you will see how we are defining those issues.

In reading we looked at the major phases of the total reading program in a state, county, district, or a local school system—the development of a system for children K through 12, with all the implications of a developmental reading program.

Then we looked at a corrective program for youngsters reading approximately a year and a half below their grade level. Both programs provided for testing, grouping, and individualization of instruction; both programs carefully considered the general interests of the children before imposing reading material; both programs aimed at supporting the total curriculum of K-12 sequence to keep the child moving along in all of his subjects. We initiated a clinical reading program for youngsters who were too severely retarded to keep pace with their grade level or who could not catch up in approximately two years' time.

The state department, of course, is providing supervision of the program. At the present time, I am alone, but by July 1 we will have a staff of four people assisting with these jobs so that there will be more supervision and consultative help at the state level. Many of the local school systems are adding reading consultants and supervisors. Because we think that leaders at the national level should assist us in our work, Dr. Alexander Frazier, a language arts specialist from Ohio State University, regularly consults with us.

We have a number of committees functioning. An important one is a curriculum steering committee that looks at the total curriculum, makes recommendations for strengthening the curriculum, and then implements these recommendations. We have curriculum committees that are developing guides. We have a television committee studying the possibilities of television programs to assist in inservice programs and in direct classroom instruction.

The preservice education of teachers is one of our major involvements. We work very closely with the universities and colleges in Georgia so that we can strengthen these programs of preservice education. Fortunately, we have the complete cooperation of college and university personnel in considering the education of elementary teachers, secondary teachers, and also administrators.

In our inservice program we have regional and state conferences, which were not possible before. This year we are having ten regional conferences, with a representative teacher from each school in the region. Probably our major objective in these regional conferences will be defining the central concepts in the K-12 English curriculum. We are having the first state convention in reading and the first state convention in English this spring.

In our Georgia program we are making a concerted effort to work closely with the universities and colleges in planning and implementing institutes for teachers. We use educational television for credit and non-credit programs in reading and in English; we conduct summer workshops for teachers and administrators; we have an internship program for college credit in the English graduate program; we are working on an equivalent program in reading. I am happy to say that the English Curriculum Center at the University of Georgia is closely coordinated with what we are trying to do.

In the special service area we are looking at research in reading and English; we have selected centers in schools and colleges to study, experiment, and evaluate curriculum content, techniques and methods of teaching, patterns of organization, and materials and media in English. We also provide teaching aids and guides from the state department; then we hold local meetings and conferences with teachers and administrators to plan local improvement programs. The Curriculum Steering Committee studies, evaluates, and recommends promising practices gleaned from current research findings.

The colleges and universities in Georgia are providing some special services for us in addition to the ones I have already mentioned. We have workshops, institutes and seminars, visitation and demonstration opportunities. The selected staff members from the universities are helping us to provide consultative services for the school systems as we develop English and reading curriculum guides and recommend them for trial. The colleges publish bulletins of interest for teachers, disseminate information, and offer courses and seminars which teachers need to keep abreast of the English discipline.

One of the efforts which we feel has major importance for improving language arts in Georgia is our continuous evaluation of the English education program from kindergarten through graduate school. We study the achievement of boys and girls in both reading and English. We note the increase in reading and the growth in reading interest as well as the growth of teachers and administrators in the understanding and knowledge of the teaching of English and reading.

DR. SCHIFFMAN: The fact that we have only twenty-four school districts in Maryland makes local contacts fairly easy. In setting a base for an effective reading program, we surveyed our school systems by questionnaire. Then a team of specialists, language arts and subject matter, visited twenty-two of the twenty-four counties. We found that teachers were not sufficiently trained to teach reading. In fact, 88 percent of the secondary English teachers in Maryland had never had a course in the teaching of reading.

In Maryland we have eighteen teacher training institutions, and not one requires a methods course in reading at the secondary level. Until May 1965 not one required a three credit course in reading at the elementary level. Some of these colleges offered a language arts course, but the teaching of reading was not guaranteed. Five colleges required only a two credit course.

I was fortunate to get the cooperation of Dr. Robert Wilson, associate professor of education and director of the reading clinic at the University of Maryland. He called a meeting of representatives from all the teacher training institutions in Maryland with state department personnel acting as consultants. The group made some decisions about minimum essential courses, required credit hours, and state certification. These decisions were circulated for approval or amendment among reading teachers and specialists concerned and then forwarded to the state department of education for implementation.

The second large area we are concerned about in Maryland is the development of reading clinics. In working with exceptional children, severely retarded readers, I became aware of a number of problems related to clinical help for children. First of all, the presence of the clinic does not solve the problem. Unless a well-trained reading specialist (and these are few) is working with the children, little good can be effected. Nor can anything be accomplished with a highly qualified clinic director and a miscellaneous, untrained staff. Further complications result when clinics have waiting lists of hundreds of children who will not receive help for at least a year.

The solution to this compound problem is to build a *strong preventive program* in the elementary school. Adequately trained language arts teachers and emphasis on early identification and referral of problems will insure successful remediation. Clinics can handle only a limited number of problems. When a whole reading program is deficient, the success of a clinic is defeated. More and more we are coming to see that the perfect functioning of a clinic often depends on its degree of integration with the total language arts program in a school. The building of empires profits no one, whereas everyone gains—primarily the children—from a clinical program which is carefully meshed with the overall K-12 language arts curriculum.

The third broad area of interest is the organization of interdisciplinary teams to give some attention to reading problems around the state. Perhaps we are unusually fortunate, but in Maryland we have both Johns

Hopkins School of Medicine and the University of Maryland Hospital. I have found there is great interest in interaction and genuine élan in cross-fertilization of ideas. Many medical people who were our strongest opponents a few years ago are now our strongest proponents. When these people appear on television programs urging small class size, adequately trained teachers, greater involvement of children in the learning process, they have become our best allies. At the state level, we need to interact with specialists in other disciplines; arranging these conferences is a legitimate, eminently worthwhile prerogative of reading and English supervisors, I would say. Just next week at the state department office we are having a conference with psychologists, visiting teachers, social workers, medical people, and language arts supervisors to discuss one subject, the identification of children with learning disabilities.

Interdisciplinary teamwork, the establishment of effective clinical programs, and the improvement of teacher training in language arts are the three major areas of concern to me at the present time in Maryland.

DR. HAVEN: I would like first to describe the role of leadership of the U. S. Office of Education. This leadership role depends almost totally on communication and liaison with the states. Only as we in the Office gain some understanding of what goes on in the states and regions and local districts can we be effective.

Probably my chief responsibility is to have a rather thorough knowledge of the federal legislation which can benefit you. I indicated earlier the financial opportunities available under Title I (which is for the disadvantaged); Title II, Materials; Title III, Innovations; Title IV, Research; and Title V, Strengthening State Departments; all under the ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT.

It ought to be clear that the NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT, Title III, deals specifically with materials, equipment, supervision, and related services. As a matter of fact, many of you are here because of funds provided on a matching basis for supervisory services under Title III of NDEA. There are, of course, myriad opportunities for federal funding, but I would like to suggest that it is not merely the money allocated to states that is going to make the difference in good programs. It is the nature of the personnel: it is their ability to exert leadership within their state and within their local districts, and to make the best use of everything that is available.

This may be a big order for any one, but I think it is something that we accepted when we assumed the responsibility as state leader in the language arts. All of you are on the exciting growing edge of genuine leadership in your states. I think, though, that one of the most important things we must all preserve is professional integrity. Academic integrity, in terms of what we are doing for instructional programs, is what each of us must insure for new programs across the country.

Perhaps those of you new in state leadership positions are beginning to feel the tremendous pressures of your job. What kinds of pressures do you think exist at the national level? Stated simply, the greatest pressure is this: we must be careful not to exert federal influence. Too often, even seasoned educators who hear us speak conclude that what we say is *law,* because we are associated with the United States Office of Education. Communication is so important among us; we need to ask each other how we can render mutual assistance. When I speak to groups such as yours, I am speaking as a professional field person, a source of information, a link between *what is* and *what is becoming*. For this reason I welcome interaction with all of you specialists who know the close-to-home needs of your people. How can we know what you want or what you would like unless you communicate with us? Letters are probably the most important messages that personnel in the federal offices in Washington listen to. It is, in fact, the first thing they listen to—information from the field, requests from the field, comments from the field. Such feedback tells whether a program continues or falls.

You may be interested to know that there are literally thousands of critical letters that come across our desks. Of course the field of reading and English education is not the only target. However, I have already answered no less than 200 letters to people who have tried to recommend some new panacea or a new national reading program. Most of these people are not educators. Let me make a special plea to you specialists who are dedicated educators, who have specific knowledge of your field, to get some of the more constructive information to us. Only in this way can we gain a true picture of what is happening.

Dr. Kinder next invited comments from panel members before opening the discussion to the floor. Again the statements below are drawn from the tape recordings.

MRS. ABERNATHY: I was happy to hear Dr. Schiffman emphasize the unity of the language arts. I think the state leader still needs to promote this concept and have it accepted by teachers from kindergarten to college. You all probably recognize the tragedy of the junior high teacher who thinks of himself as a *literature major* and forgets that probably a third of his students cannot read and understand the material he is using and more than half cannot write about it in any acceptable literary way. In Georgia we have defined English as literature, language, composition, and communication. Sometimes communication is assumed to be a part of language and composition, but it also has a unique importance because of the universal use of mass media today. The *arts* of language are the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. We feel that by these definitions we are tying the whole curriculum together and making it easier for both teachers and students to understand the logical unity of the rich, complex field in which we work.

DR. SCHIFFMAN: I have a summary of obstacles or needs related to state leadership in English and reading. We culled it from the initial questionnaire submitted to all our participants. Some of these needs are as follows (and some are worded as ideals to be attained):

1. The need for a better academic-professional image of the state specialist in language arts.
2. A more realistic job description or additional personnel to assist in carrying out the complex role of state specialist.
3. A larger staff to cover both English and reading specialties.
4. Salaries consonant with the academic-professional training and experience of the specialist and equivalent to other top level supervisory positions in other professions.
5. Increased budget for out-of-state travel.
6. Better secretarial staffs to expedite communication at local, state, and national levels.
7. Opportunity to contact colleges directly; to teach and conduct research with university faculties.
8. Recognition and cooperation from local leadership.
9. Separation of state agencies from the legislative branch.
10. Improved secretarial services or increased budget for the publication and distribution of materials.
11. Increased state matching funds for federal-state programs related to English and reading.
12. Improved selection practices of state specialists; elimination of political appointments.
13. Greater freedom to effect K-12 curriculum sequence in language arts on a statewide basis.
14. Increased participation in interdepartmental decisions: research and development; teacher certification; libraries; special education; adult education.
15. Recognition of contributions to professional journals; participation in national organizations such as MLA, ASCD, IRA, Linguistic Society of America, and others of similar stature.

DR. HAVEN: Mrs. Abernathy's comment on defining the English language arts reminds me of a great effort made by a special task force at the Office of Education to define educational terms. This comprehensive lexicon is being developed in consultation with modern linguists, educational sociologists, medical personnel, rhetoricians, creative writers, educational media experts, and other related academic-professional personnel. The purpose is to facilitate communication between the Office of Education and the teaching profession. Members of Congress will also use this lexicon to insure a unified interpretation of the bills they prepare. Precise definition of educational terms is something we have long needed in our profession.

Another important leadership function of the Office of Education is the coordination of English from K through twelve. Maybe it is time to initiate a phrase that better expresses the true range of our responsibility, *pre-K-college.* As several of you pointed out, we need to be concerned about the college preparation of future language arts teachers. However, we also need to look at the teaching of English generally in our state colleges. The problems of the much discussed freshman composition courses, you know, are the problems we created through our K-12 language arts programs. And should we end our concern for language arts teaching with college? There is not one state in fifty that accepts the bachelor of arts or sciences degree as maximum preparation to teach English. We are impelled, it seems, to worry about English education programs in graduate school because most of our teachers are required to take thirty hours of credit beyond the bachelor's degree. If we are serious about sequence and aware of our commitment as language arts leaders, we can scarcely neglect any segment of the *nursery school to graduate school* English education sequence.

Another point I would like to make is that we need to plan programs with long term goals. All of us are subject to the reality of yearly appropriations for our work. However, it is unrealistic if not wasteful to create plans for educational enterprises that are to last for a single year. Much of the superficiality and lack of academic integrity of the programs I review in the Office of Education stems from this fact of short duration. Little of genuine depth and significance can be accomplished in nine or ten months. English education by its very nature is a lifelong process; we ought then to think of our programs at least as yearlong activities, and longer when necessary. The lags and gaps in language arts programs are proving to be serious factors in retardation. Summer vacations and brief, sporadic periods of instruction do little to improve language facility which is the subject of the child's every waking hour. Continuous programs with serious long-range goals are best suited to efficient language arts methodology.

My next point is related to an excellent one made before by Dr. Schiffman, the need for closer cooperation among high level leaders in English and reading. All of you in your state departments of education need to establish contacts with deans of graduate schools, hospitals, colleges of education, English department chairmen, college teachers of methods courses in English and reading, directors and supervisors of student teachers in English, county supervisors of language arts, high school English department heads, and master teachers of English at every level. And probably most important of all, you should establish contact with the United States Office of Education. To facilitate your working closely with federally funded programs, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has established and staffed nine regional offices. Each office is established to serve the various states in that region of the country. There are offices in Boston, New York, Atlanta, Denver, Chicago, San Francisco, Dallas, Charlottesville, and Kansas City. There are also Regional Laboratory Centers where the program of experimentation and staff competence can make a real contribution to the success of instructional improvement in your state. It seems that cooperative enterprise has become the key to successful performance at every level of human activity. From my vantage point in the central Office of Education the trend toward cooperative effort among high level state, university, and federal leaders is obvious. It is precisely this kind of top level planning that will impel the thrust of a coordinated pre-K-university curriculum. It will also hasten the realization of an old dream for released public school time for inservice academic courses. For the first time, all responsible agents will accept their serious role in the preparation and continuing education of their instructional staff in English and reading.

Another trend I see and recommend to you is the formulation of curriculum guides, evaluative criteria, and similar instruments after consultation and feedback from specialists in other states. We have worked in isolation too long, and ultimately the students who live in an age of transiency suffer from our provincialism. Of course, a single state might be expected to have unique problems related to its geographic setting, its cultural complexion, its historic development, and other factors. However, we have not yet begun to explore the common denominators in educational enterprise, especially in the English language arts. It is easy to see how children across the country share common problems in using a standard English language. It seems only logical to assist one another at the state level in developing and systematizing information that cuts deep into the real language needs of students. I sincerely hope that the new ASEARS (Association of State English and Reading Specialists) will facilitate cooperative planning, experimentation, and feedback among state specialists across the country.

One of the goals this new English education leadership group might accomplish is what we have been hoping for and talking about—a reasonable teacher-pupil ratio. Until we get down to twenty-five or thirty in a classroom, there seems little hope for achieving anything of significance in a discipline whose foundational principle is verbal creativity. I don't know how students are going to communicate anything verbally when the line-up is fifty deep to say something, or the papers they write are three weeks old before a teacher has time to read the communication and respond. Can a child learn to read if his turn for individual attention comes only once every five days?

I am looking forward to what the new ASEARS will accomplish.

As Dr. Kinder invited comments from the audience, a number of participants responded. They are identified by name and the state they represent.

BEVERLY WHITE (Louisiana): One of our great failures is in communicating with others, especially our teachers around the state. Until we made a K-12 survey of English teaching preparation in Louisiana, we never realized that 99 percent of our junior high people were prepared for secondary school teaching with neither a course in reading nor in language arts instruction. It seems that none of these teachers told us about their need for special preparation in teaching reading, nor were we astute enough to ask some questions and record some significant answers.

DONALD SHIRE (Missouri): Dr. Haven, there seems to be a development of exchange strategies which are being encouraged on a level of institutions outside of what we think of as the regular structure of our school organization, the regular structure being the local school, the state department of education, and the USOE. I might cite the Title IV regional centers. I might also cite the encouragement of the Title III regional centers.

I am wondering what this general trend has to do with the effect of behavior of specialists in language arts and other specialists at the state level, and I am wondering what the challenge is for state level people in this respect.

DR. HAVEN: I wish I could answer your questions and doubts effectively. Let me instead say simply that Mr. Margolin in our office has announced twelve regional centers being funded ($45 million worth). These will not be single subject centers but a compilation of the services of specialists in all subject areas. Since I haven't answered you directly, let me give you what I think is in progress. Obviously, much of the new experimental effort being federally funded is designed to finance research for the improvement of instruction. Whatever is not effective can certainly be changed. I don't see where this is going to change the role of the state specialist at all. In fact, I think it is going to create an even greater demand for excellence from these leaders. It is certainly going to encourage state and local leadership. However, I see no effect on our particular role except to extend it and to strengthen its implications in our own state.

GERALD KINCAID (Minnesota): I was wondering if anyone has evidence of a long-range, follow-up study of developmental reading programs at the junior high level. We have one school which has what we think is one of the best such programs in the state. To evaluate this program, we developed open book tests in 7-12 subject areas which tested reading-study skill. In spite of a repeat test one month after the initial administration, we found significantly little carryover from skills stressed in the developmental reading program to those required by subject matter tests. This information made quite an impact on the staff. I would recommend, then, that no developmental reading programs be developed for junior high students unless the total staff can participate in setting up priority skills and in creating a program that provides for reinforcement of these skills in the subject matter areas.

JOHN CALABRO (Massachusetts): Sometimes people want to be reminded of their responsibilities, I guess. At meetings in one of our local high schools, the state reading supervisor was asked to review the most effective ways of working with slow readers. The series of six meetings seemed to stimulate considerable interest, activity, and feedback on problems of development and remediation in high school.

ROBERT CHEUVRONT (Colorado): We have discussed the problem of the disadvantaged to some extent here, and I think we are all becoming increasingly aware of the need for changing the early childhood environment of youngsters from these groups. I am somewhat concerned about the present pattern of operation, and I am wondering, Dr. Haven, if there is anything that we might do to bring these programs in early childhood education back within the framework of the USOE where it seems to me to belong.

DR. HAVEN: We are concerned, too. May I say that some of the education programs of the Office of Economic Opportunity are moving into Title I. The Headstart funding can also come from Title I, you know.

MARGARET JUSTICE (Alaska): We have been giving considerable attention to the preschool child in Alaska. Because these boys and girls frequently come from remote communities, we need a good deal of time to induct them into what we might call a *total American culture*. Language barriers are a real obstacle for these children, some of whom come from remote bilingual communities. Unless we initiate a sound linguistic program with our preschoolers, our language arts program in the elementary and secondary school is doomed to failure. As you may have heard, we have several sets of primers, preprimers, and readiness books developed by specialists in English working from the children's own oral language. Along with numerous creative speaking and singing and dramatizing activities, we use these experience-centered materials until the children have learned enough to feel a part of a community structure greater than the small place they come from.

DR. KINDER: Thank you, everyone, members of the panel and members of the audience, for a most rewarding discussion today. All of us, I am sure, look forward to future interaction with state level colleagues in English and reading at the annual meetings of the new Association of State English and Reading Specialists.

Preservice and Inservice Education

The purpose of the preservice and inservice study group is to investigate ways of improving the educational opportunities of all children through the study of the functions and responsibilities of state consultants in English and reading. By examining teacher training programs at major universities in the United States, by discussing shared supervisory problems, by identifying present needs in the preparation of English and reading teachers, this group hopes to offer recommendations based on urgent needs in the profession.

Objectives

This group proposes to investigate the following questions:

1. What is the role of the state consultant in the area of teacher education?
2. Ideally, what ought to be the content of preservice and inservice programs?
3. What materials and techniques are specifically related to inservice programs?
4. In what should certification in the fields of English and reading consist?
5. What preparation do university, college, and state department personnel need?
6. How best can the opening of communication channels at federal, state, and local levels be effected?

Recommendations Related to Needs

A. *Role of the State Consultant in Preservice and Inservice Education*

Because the emergence of the state consultant in English and reading is relatively new, the need arises to define the role of the state consultant in improving the preservice and inservice education of teachers of English and reading. As an English educator, the state consultant should be both a subject matter specialist who is close to the scholarly community, and a teacher who should know the problems and needs of the classroom. As a member of the state organization, he should provide the liaison among the state department, the school community, and the public. In such a central position, the state consultant has the specific responsibility of providing general direction and of initiating, stimulating, and coordinating efforts to improve the education of all those concerned with the teaching of English and reading.

Specifically it is **recommended** that:

1. The state consultant provide leadership, guidance, and coordination in evaluating reading and English programs at the district and local school levels in order to identify areas in which need for improvement exists.
2. The state consultant provide leadership, guidance, and coordination in (a) the establishment of inservice education programs directed toward the areas of need determined by program evaluation; (b) the development of new approaches to inservice education programs with respect to scheduling (e.g., released time), media (e.g., T.V.), and financial subsidization.

B. *Content of Courses and the Problem of New Knowledge*

The need to bridge the gap between rapidly expanding knowledge and its application in the profession by improving the competence of personnel at all levels is indisputable. It is **recommended** therefore that steps be taken:

1. To encourage continuous evaluation of existing practices in reading and English programs at all levels, preschool through college.
2. To work cooperatively on development of varied approaches to the evaluation of all facets of the English and reading program.
3. To develop sequential, long-range, teacher education based on need evidenced in evaluation.
4. To reexamine the total structure: content, sequence, balance, and relationships of courses in reading and English for both preservice and inservice programs.
5. To stimulate a desire for continuing education at all staff levels.
6. To provide channels for the ultilization of research findings in existing programs and for the implementation of new programs.

C. *The Problem of Using New Materials and Techniques*

The need to help school administrators, teachers, and other school personnel to evaluate, select, and use professional materials and techniques must be given serious attention.

It is **recommended** that all media be explored in order to disseminate information and implement current findings of research concerning promising practices and new materials and techniques. Computerized information retrieval, closed-circuit television, kinescopes, tapes, films, filmstrips, bulletins, newsletters, workshops, institutes, and conferences may be utilized for this purpose. The cooperative efforts of the state consultant, the audiovisual and research personnel, and the public school and university faculties are resources for effective evaluation.

D. *The Need to Examine Certification and Accreditation Standards in Reading and English*

To arrive finally at standards which are acceptable throughout the country, the following actions are **recommended:**

1. To promote the raising of certification and accreditation standards for all teachers of reading and English.
2. To specify minimum course requirements in reading for all teachers.
3. To develop a standardized terminology for certificating and accrediting reading and English personnel.
4. To provide endorsement for specialists in the areas of reading and English.
5. To urge provision for a periodic examination and reevaluation of the educational experiences of personnel in reading and English areas.

E. *The Dearth of Top Level English and Reading Personnel*

Throughout the United States, there exists a severe shortage of qualified personnel to supervise and conduct preservice and inservice education programs in the field of reading and English. Without qualified teachers of teachers, most reading and English programs will continue to be less than adequate, and funds currently appropriated for the improvement of instruction will make only a token impact upon their intended purpose.

Recommendation: Because of a severe shortage of qualified personnel to prepare teachers of reading and English, it is recommended that the federal government finance preparation programs for college teachers and state consultants in the fields of reading and English. Funds should be provided to accomplish the following goals:

1. Permit colleges and universities to expand their present programs for college level personnel in the field of reading and English.
2. Permit colleges to inaugurate such programs.
3. Provide grants for prospective college teachers in reading and English.
4. Provide grants for prospective state specialists in reading and English.
5. Provide grants and full sabbatical leaves for existing college teachers to improve their skills in reading and English.
6. Provide grants and full sabbatical leaves for existing state consultants in reading and English.

F. *The Problem of Communication among Federal, State, and Local Agencies*

Recent developments on the national level demonstrate a strong concern for education as it is reflected by the national interest. The federal government has a right to be concerned about the development of the nation's children. But the strength of our educational progress has been reflected by our diversity rather than our uniformity. As the government becomes more concerned about education, it should also be aware of the diverse problems which exist, and solutions should be sought in relation to the nature of the problems. We do not consult a mechanic when we need a doctor, so those in responsible positions in government should consult those professionals responsible for the education of children. The federal government should consult with teachers of reading and English to improve communication, develop unity of purpose, and make planning genuinely comprehensive.

Recommendation: It is strongly urged that a national advisory committee in English and reading be set up to confer directly with the United States Office of Education. This committee should be limited to two consultants from each state, one in English and one in reading.

This committee will serve as a clearing house for common problems related to the specific needs of English and reading instruction. The committee will serve as an advisory committee to the United States Office of Education in order to effect improved communication between the various states and the Congress in regard to reading and English instruction. The committee should meet at least annually or at the special request of its chairman. The cost of the meeting should be defrayed by federal funds.

Curriculum Innovation

The complexity of the modern world, as well as the threat of nuclear war, demands that our youth learn how to create, how to evaluate, and how to discuss their problems without resorting to brute force. The English language arts provide a singular hope for success in achieving these goals. Although innovation may apply to a particular group such as the educationally disadvantaged, we believe that state leadership must help schools work toward a concept of total curriculum which meets the needs of all students.

In view of the diverse nature of states represented in this group, and within the time allotted us to consider curriculum innovations at this conference, we have developed the following consensus: State supervisors should provide assistance to local school districts to assure that curriculum innovations are consistent with the needs of today's students in order to survive in tomorrow's world.

Objectives of the Work Group on Curriculum Innovations

1. To identify the role of state departments in curriculum innovation.
2. To identify some major problems in English and reading instruction.
3. To report current and projected innovations in areas of English and reading.
4. To make recommendations that will encourage improved instruction from preschool through adult education programs.

Needs in Curriculum Innovations

A. Children
   1. Language
      a. To develop knowledge and skill in educated English usage so that no child is handicapped by his use of nonstandard dialect.
      b. To develop an appreciation for a variety of American dialects.
      c. To grow in knowledge and competence in language by studying several systems of grammar as well as the history of the English language.
      d. To appreciate the prosodic features of English and to enjoy oral reports, group discussions, choral reading, creative drama, poetry recitation, and songs.
   2. Reading
      a. To develop speed and accuracy in symbol interpretation,

- b. To develop skill in integrating what is read with one's total experiential matrix.
- c. To improve inferential, critical, and associative thinking.
- d. To develop lifelong habits of selective reading.

3. Literature
   - a. To develop the concept of literature as verbal art of distinction.
   - b. To develop valid bases for discrimination and critical judgment.
   - c. To exercise the methods of literary criticism in seeking to understand and evaluate a piece of literature.
   - d. To learn the forms, genres, and themes characteristic of Western literature.
   - e. To develop awareness and appreciation for all kinds of world literature.
4. Composition
   - a. To understand that composition is the pivot of the entire language arts program.
   - b. To develop each child's competency in making verbal interpretations of reality.
   - c. To develop composition skills which are integrated with a total English program.
   - d. To delight in writing and speaking in all the modes and all the forms of verbal art.
5. Mass media communication
   - a. To develop awareness of the strengths and limitations of the various media.
   - b. To develop conscious discrimination in the selection of radio and TV programs, magazines, newspapers, paperbacks, tapes, and discs.
   - c. To understand the role of the media in today's cultural and economic world.

B. Personnel
1. To continue recruitment of well-trained English teachers, men and women prepared to teach a multicomponent program of language, reading, literature, composition, and mass media.
2. To facilitate inservice training for teachers through sound academic and professional studies especially in reading, linguistics, and rhetoric.
3. To initiate a disciplinewide change of attitude toward the teaching of composition, *away* from negative prescriptiveness and *toward* freedom and personal creativity.

C. Program
1. Language

    a. To establish direction for the English program, including the sequential nature of the program.
    b. To assure K-14 continuity in the program.
    c. To develop methods of evaluation.
  2. Reading
    a. To detect problems before they become critical.
    b. To develop flexible programs to meet the needs of individual children.
    c. To provide for continuity of instruction.
    d. To develop suitable beginning approaches.
  3. Literature
    a. To correlate reading skills with literature reading.
    b. To develop literature study on more than one level per grade.
    c. To provide balance, continuity, and sequence to the entire program.
  4. Composition
    a. To help teachers structure an integrated, spiral program in composition.
    b. To develop an understanding of the relationship of composition to the entire English discipline.
    c. To develop means for the evaluation of the science and art components in writing.
    d. To develop composition as a meaningful human experience.
  5. Mass media communication
    a. To develop programs which use radio, TV, newspapers, paperbacks, discs, and tapes in the classroom so that children can be led to note the strengths and limitations of this kind of communication.
    b. To create updated courses of study in English and reading which integrate media communication experienced in the home with the total language arts program in the school.
    c. To develop integrated language arts programs in which the speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills associated with media production and consumption are understood and practiced by the children as personal competencies.

D. Facilities
  1. To develop state resource centers which provide facilities for teacher consultations and exhibits.
  2. To develop state curriculum centers.
  3. To develop closed circuit television facilities within school districts.
  4. To develop regional English curriculum laboratories where films, tapes, discs, courses of study, and similar materials are available to teachers.

Present Programs Involving Curriculum Innovation

A. Administrative responsibilities
   1. To disseminate information to key English and reading personnel.
   2. To establish effective communication with English and reading personnel in state departments throughout the United States.
   3. To coordinate efforts of local school organizations.

B. Survey
   1. To determine the status of English and reading programs on a statewide basis.
   2. To engage in research projects before recommendations are formed concerning specific systems of innovative programs.
   3. To engage in projects to test teaching efficiency.

C. Consultant services
   1. To develop close liaison between university and local personnel.
   2. To assist in the development of guidelines for English and reading curriculum.
   3. To encourage leadership development on the local level through workshops and institutes.
   4. To report and interpret trends in English education and reading to local levels.

D. Curriculum changes
   1. To develop curriculum changes through cooperation with college and university personnel.
   2. To involve state and local personnel in unified efforts at curriculum improvement.
   3. To cooperate with local districts in implementing guidelines.

Evaluation of Curriculum Innovations

A. To evaluate innovations objectively.
B. To participate in state evaluations when needed and/or requested.

Recommendations Concerning Curriculum Innovations

A. Standards
   1. Innovations must be defined, studied, and researched to assure sound education.
   2. Guidelines for innovations are desirable.

B. Priorities
   1. The committee recommends that specialists in English and reading on state staffs take the lead in developing criteria in cooperation with local school districts to accomplish the following tasks:
      a. Evaluate soundness of proposals for change.
      b. Implement plans.
      c. Evaluate outcomes.

2. English educators should work to provide experiences that will help teachers develop attitudes which will recognize the process of learning as one of inquiry and which will recognize values in open-mindedness.
3. English and reading specialists should continuously evaluate their roles as state staff members in the light of purposeful education for the citizens of their states.

C. Programs
   1. Develop further interest in using the language experience approach to learning.
   2. Develop independent study programs with specialization in various content areas.
   3. Develop special reading programs for boys.
   4. Develop programs involving group dynamics.
   5. Develop integrated, multicomponent programs.
   6. Develop directed study programs.
   7. Develop learning abilities programs which will help teachers increase skill in assessing children.
   8. Develop experimentations on the linguistic approach to teaching standard English as a second language, as well as studies on the relationship of the new grammars and composition.
   9. Develop studies of local dialects.

D. Federal funding
   1. Development of communications systems, such as this conference, to assist in informing state personnel and coordinating state programs.
   2. Investigation of the possibility of computerized analysis of reading difficulties.
   3. Experimentation with various devices for teaching reading—typewriter, dramatization, choral reading.
   4. Support for the development of innovative facilities.
   5. Support for extended supervisory services.
   6. Grants to state personnel for improvement in English and reading (studying for advanced degrees).
   7. Grants for experimental programs in the teaching of composition.
   8. Support for developing educational technology resources of schools and school districts.
   9. Grants for cooperative inservice programs for English and reading teachers at local universities.
   10. Grants for improving salaries of state supervisors of English and reading to attract academically and professionally superior persons.

Report

Innovations and the Supervisor

Eldonna L. Evertts

What effect does recent research in language learning conducted by psychologists and the descriptions of language presented by linguistics have upon the elementary and high school curriculums is a question frequently asked by supervisors of English and reading. Why is oral language stressed and why do linguists not always agree are other equally prominent questions. And not their least concern is their own preparation for helping teachers who wish to plan a language program reflective of current scholarship and pedagogy. The questions which follow are representative of those presented to a panel at the University of Maryland Conference discussing innovations. Included are selective questions supervisors have asked on similar occasions.

What is the state of knowledge about how children learn language?

Actually we know too little about language learning, yet some new events are encouraging. More knowledge about how children learn language is becoming available. More sophisticated research is possible since linguists, psychologists, and specialists in child development and education are collaborating in the formation of the research design and in the conducting of projects rather than trying to reconcile disparate studies. As a result some excellent research is now beginning to be reported in this area. What is reported gives emphasis to oral language, to the nature of the English program, and to the ways language is learned and has much relevance to headstart programs and to the construction of reading programs.

Although the supervisor must depend upon this recent research as well as the literature in this area prepared by respective authorities, he should not encourage the building of a curriculum based upon a limited number of studies. Rather he must carefully study both the findings and the implications of a number of studies to determine if a common consensus can be identified. Then he can determine the possibility of using this information in solving local problems. During this planning process the nursery school and kindergarten teachers, who have had considerable experience with young children, should play an important role.

The bibliography at the close of this section lists books edited by Janet Emig and Sol Saporta. The chapters on language learning should be most helpful for supervisors.

Is there a difference between speech and oral language?

Speech and oral language are both important, but there is a distinction. Speech more frequently is related to the theory and practice of planned oral expression or discourse; often, especially in the elementary school, it encompasses the correcting of speech or voice disorders which may be caused by physical, mental, or psychological difficulties.

Oral language is a much broader term that includes the phonemes and intonational patterns, morphology (including syntax), and the combining of these to produce a variety of the language common to the group to which the individual belongs. Oral language also means the development of the use of language by the individual from birth to death. It may be contrasted with written communication and, in a sense, is an abstract concept of the much larger abstraction *language*. Oral language instruction should not be misinterpreted to mean just a primary speech improvement.

Why is oral language stressed so frequently?

Most educators believe that oral language is the basis for all other language use, including the ability to read and write written symbols. It follows then that until such time as an individual can understand the meaning of sentences spoken to him and can use these same kinds of sentences to express his own ideas, he is not ready for the higher level of abstraction in which he must find the meaning hidden in the writing of others.

If a pupil is to achieve success in reading and subject areas using written symbols, he must first be able to understand and utilize the vocabulary, sentence patterns, and cognitive processes involved. This understanding must come first through listening and speaking. Only then can he begin to learn how to comprehend written material. Since understanding is not dependent upon the meaning of an isolated word or phrase but upon the meaning which the word has in a specific sentence, and even as that sentence is dependent upon those around it for clarity, the pupil must be able to perceive the whole selection as a single entity. If this aspect of comprehension is first approached in written material, the complexity of vocabulary definition can be discouraging if not completely frustrating to some pupils. Therefore oral language use should precede written material.

Those interested in effecting more efficient beginning reading programs are seeking ways to strengthen the oral command of language before introducing the child to formal reading instruction. This concept might prove to be extremely important to those pupils unfamiliar with the vocabulary and sentence patterns of standard dialect found in textbooks. Certainly those pupils should be given the opportunity to enjoy a story read orally by the teacher, to discover that stories are recorded in books before being required to decode written messages.

In addition to grammar instruction, what is included in English?

So many scholars of English have written long discourses on what is *English* that it seems presumptuous to comment on many of these fine essays. However, an attempt will be made to help the supervisor to distinguish between some of the closely related terms which are sometimes taken as synonymous. First, grammar instruction is only one small component of English, indeed only one component of language study itself. English comprises literature, language, and composition and the language arts skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The interrelationship among these elements is high. Indeed it is almost impossible to deal exclusively with any one of these. Knowledge and skill can be extended in more than one area at a given time.

The teacher's oral reading of children's literature can provide the bases for many understandings for the children and can contribute to occasions for increasing their language skills: appreciation and understanding of literary content, opportunity to listen to varying sentence structures, observation of archaic expressions of language, extension of vocabulary, discovery and identification of ideas and concepts for discussion, investigation and reporting of topics introduced, encouragement of writing, writing of composition based upon the literary model, and motivation of independent reading by the pupil. Thus it becomes obvious that all elementary teachers are teachers of English. English is not an isolated subject area, but includes all the arts of language, or conversely all the arts of language include English.

Much can be done to improve conditions at the high school level if teachers would give students a rich experience with literature worthy of imitation, literature in which recognized authors artfully express feelings, emotions, and observations of life itself and its problems. The skills of language needed by the individual student to produce the types of writing he is attempting to produce should be identified and taught as part of the English program. Some students may profit from the study or analysis of grammar, and hopefully the teacher will have a full understanding of at least one modern theory to present to these students.

Grammar must be distinguished from usage. Grammar is a description of how language functions; usage is the established custom of speaking and writing various language forms by individuals or groups. Grammar and usage or "correctness" should both have a place in the school curriculum. Likewise the language portion of a curriculum, K-12, should include semantics, dialect study, and some information about language history and change as well as oral language and written communication. All the systems which operate within language should be included in a complete language program.

Although at times the elementary or secondary teacher must deal specifically with component skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing which include reading skills and grammar, spelling, handwriting, punctuation, etc., these arts of language are usually related to some content. How true the comment that one does not *read reading* but one can *read* stories, poems, and other forms of literature. Equally true is this in listening, speaking, or writing. The disciplines of English illustrate how the ability to use language can produce the ability to share ideas and to gain much value from others who may be near or distant in temporal or spatial relationships.

Should we wait until the linguists reach some agreement before adopting linguistic programs?

Not only is linguistics a scientific study of language, but each branch proceeds from certain attitudes about the nature of language and the purpose of the study. This linguistics may be viewed as an attitude toward language. This attitude toward language may be expressed through various interpretations. Consequently all interpretations will not necessarily be identical. That linguists are not always in full agreement is not necessarily disadvantageous. As a linguist learns more and more about language, he understands more deeply the complex nature of language and so gains greater insight. Indeed as he learns more, his explanations become more complex but also more accurate.

Before adopting any program, linguistics or otherwise, a careful study must be made of the content and of the type of student who will be using this material. Questions to be asked include: Are the purpose, intent, rationale, and content consistent with basic principles of the discipline and pedagogy? What was the content of the program designed to teach or measure? Does this material meet the purposes of the program being planned in the school? For what type of child will it be helpful? How can it be adapted to individual needs? What background or preparation do the teachers have or need for using it successfully?

Should linguistics be introduced in the school curriculum?

The science of linguistics contains much which can be of value to those teaching and working with children and young people. However, one should not expect linguistics to accomplish miracles, miracles which the linguists never suggested. Surely no one teacher assumes that an understanding of linguistics will automatically result in the ability to speak and write effectively. Knowledge about language is not identical with skill in using language. Teachers still need to teach composition and to help pupils study and understand written forms of discourse; however, the more knowledgeable they are about language, the easier this instruction should be for them. Even with the present state of knowledge, this knowledge should be useful in clarifying priorities. An understanding of linguistics should prevent the teacher from uttering foolish, and sometimes ignorant, remarks on language.

Linguistics presents us with a scientific description of our language—and identifies the operation of the various systems within language. Linguists have presented many theories of grammar based upon an analysis of the language, and teachers need to be aware of these various theories and to show students that our language can be described in different ways.

Must traditional grammar be abandoned?

Many traditional grammar teachers through the years have approached the study of grammar in a creative manner. They have helped students to observe the features of language and how these operate. Neither good teaching nor bad teaching can be attached to any theory of grammar. Even linguistics can be prescriptive!

Perhaps it would be helpful to distinguish between prescriptiveness on the one hand and rigid inflexibility on the other. Certainly an awareness of standards and the latitude permitted in the use of these standards by given groups is quite different from a mania for "correctness," from insisting on conformity to arbitrary forms. That traditional grammar which insists on a single and sometimes spurious standard for speech and writing we could profitably abandon.

At the present time it would seem that linguistics can provide us with an accurate way of talking about the familiar. Supervisors cannot afford to ignore this fact. The precise form which instruction will take regarding the teaching of grammar in the classroom during the next few years is not certain, and during the process of change there are many avenues which must be investigated. Nevertheless the supervisor cannot sit and wait for these changes; neither can he expect to be told exactly what to do. Even now much experimental work is being conducted in the classroom. It would appear, from the encouraging reports, that some of the linguistic programs or linguistically oriented curriculums are well received.

What pamphlets or books would be helpful to give supervisors a background of linguistics which they need?

So many helpful publications are now available that it would be impossible to present a list which would be comprehensive or answer the needs of all supervisors. The person talking about linguistics or trying to teach certain aspects of it must have read widely in the discipline and should be able to recognize the contrasting manner in which different authorities view the language. Indeed the unique or specialized ideas and concepts by linguists should be identified with the name of the linguists presenting that idea or concept.

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The Disadvantaged

This group has established that our main purpose is to relate the development of communication skills to the educational needs of the disadvantaged.

Specific Objectives

1. To identify problems of the disadvantaged.
2. To make recommendations to school districts as they plan and develop projects in communication skills for the disadvantaged.

Identification of General Problems

1. School personnel do not generally understand the culture of the disadvantaged.
2. In planning and operating projects for the disadvantaged, available research is often ignored.
3. School personnel are frequently thrust into project work without thorough knowledge of ESEA and without time to study both children and problem areas before writing projects.
4. Adequately trained personnel to staff projects is not available.

General Recommendations

1. The development of projects for disadvantaged children should be based on fruitful initial language experiences. Remedial programs frequently described in present projects are inappropriate for disadvantaged children, especially in early childhood years.
2. The development of projects for disadvantaged children should be structured so that administrators and/or other school personnel who are planning, writing, and carrying out projects will deal with developmental communication skills.

Identification of Specific Problems and Recommendations

1. Problems in rural areas and combined districts
    a. Unavailability of qualified school personnel—teachers and administrators.
    b. High attrition rate of teachers.
    c. Difficulty in working with rural school personnel.
    d. Lack of communication systems.
    e. Inaccessibility due to severe weather conditions.
    f. Lack of materials and equipment within schools and state departments.

- g. Difficulty in conducting inservice training.
- h. Lack of professional literature and training programs aimed toward instructing teachers in methods used in multigraded rooms.
- i. Rural schools too small to provide necessary service or equipment to meet needs, i.e., SRA labs for schools with 10-15 children, grades 1-8 need 5 labs.
- j. High schools too small to be accredited because of inadequate curriculum.
- k. Schools lack space for storing instructional materials and equipment, for conducting special classes, for libraries.
- l. Little or no opportunity to provide services for handicapped children.
- m. No multipurpose rooms for indoor activities during bad weather.
- n. No food services in some schools.

2. **Recommendations** related to problems in rural areas and combined districts
   - a. Funds should be made available for the following basic needs:
     - 1) Salaries
     - 2) Construction
     - 3) Materials and equipment, especially audiovisual devices and electronic tapes for speaking experience.
     - 4) Travel and per diem for summer institutes and inservice training of teachers and supervisors of English and reading.
     - 5) Funds for developing materials to be used in multigrade schools.
     - 6) States should have complete freedom to recognize their own needs and to approve Title I projects according to local conditions.
   - b. Serious professional attention should be given to non-English and nonstandard English speaking people.
     - 1) Identification of disadvantaged as to background, experience, income, education, geography, race, ethnic group.
     - 2) Involvement of severely disadvantaged in language arts activities.
     - 3) Determination of specific communication problems of the severely disadvantaged.
     - 4) Recruitment and training of adequate and trained personnel to conduct activities for both parents and children.
     - 5) Use of newer methods and materials in language education.
     - 6) Use of sound evaluation techniques.
   - c. All projects should elicit active participation of parents and children. Participants as well as community resources should be involved in leadership roles as well as in advisory roles.
   - d. Specialists working with disadvantaged should note the danger

of divorcing federal programs from established state and local projects. Cooperative effort should yield maximal response from parents and children.

   e. Services of specialists should be utilized in the preparation, approval, supervision, and evaluation of projects.

3. **Recommendations** related to implementation of programs
   a. Where there is labeling as specialists people who lack adequate training and experience to qualify for that title, we recommend that state standards of accreditation of specialists should be developed. The cooperation of colleges and universities is essential in supplying appropriate courses.
   b. Where there is a need to convince administrators of local areas of the importance of ongoing developmental programs rather than crash corrective measures per se, we recommend that state guidelines concerning good developmental programs in reading and language should be developed and disseminated among school districts.
   c. Where there is a need to involve teachers and school administrators in determining needs and in planning to meet these needs, we recommend the assistance of specialists in providing ideas and services. Conferences and discussion groups should be held involving teachers and school administrators in which needs can be explored and programs suggested to fill these needs.

The Disadvantaged and Their Communication Problems

1. Comments on problems
   a. Usual school programs (including methods and teaching techniques) do not take into consideration the background of the disadvantaged child nor his special difficulties in meeting educational expectations.
   b. Present school programs frequently introduce children to formal reading and writing before they have had ample opportunity in listening and speaking.
   c. Programs for the disadvantaged often fail to provide opportunity for the new experiences and also fail to offer mutual respect and reinforcement of the *values* of the child's own culture.
   d. Present school practices include neither close cooperation nor educational opportunity for the parents of disadvantaged children.
2. **Recommendations** for helping the disadvantaged
   a. The child's language (nonstandard English or non-English) and experience background should be used to develop his communication skills. Later, increased confidence in communication will provide the basis for teaching standard English.

   b. Language arts communication programs must provide some *success experiences* for each child daily.
   c. The USOE and state departments of education should cooperate with colleges in establishing preservice programs for teachers of English language arts which are comprehensive enough in scope to train teachers to understand and solve the specific linguistic problems of the culturally different.

Proposals for a Preventive Program

1. Bring the language problems of disadvantaged children to the attention of local school administrators. The following procedure is suggested:
   a. Schedule a meeting sponsored by the USOE with a representative number of State Departments of Education and an interdisciplinary team with a knowledge of the language needs of deprived children to arrive at basic concepts for developing programs in communication skills for the disadvantaged.
   b. Following this national meeting, regional meetings with State Departments of Education and selected local school people for the purpose of developing the concepts into objectives and suggested activities for Title I ESEA projects in the area of communication skills.
2. As quickly as possible, introduce the following innovations:
   a. Teachers selected and reimbursed to work additional time to study needs of disadvantaged and to develop programs and materials to meet these needs. Consultant services made available through cooperation with local universities.
   b. Language programs developed, recognizing broad supportive services including nutrition, the arts, extended experiences.
   c. Programs designed to encourage a positive self-image, confidence in and enthusiasm for the world in which the child lives through family cooperation projects, trips, recreation and health services, and tutoring programs.
   d. Improvement in language arts, social studies, and science through utilization of audiovisual materials for bilingual children in severely disadvantaged remote areas.
   e. Movable classrooms built, equipped, and professionally staffed for non-English speaking, hard of hearing, emotionally disturbed, and partially sighted children.
   f. Pilot projects in establishing special communication systems between remote rural schools such as those in Alaska; use of closed-circuit television.
   g. Dialogue development for non-English speaking children and nonstandard English speaking children. Structure patterns are

drawn from the experience of the students involving listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

h. Program designed to provide after-school (evening) aid to K-12 students in gaining additional experiences in listening, reading, and writing, and in completing homework assignments.
i. Parents also receive instruction in sewing, typing, modern math, and basic reading and English.
j. Trained personnel with aides from the community work with the students.
k. After-school study library facilities available to elementary and secondary school students. Two teachers supervise and assist students.
l. Inservice training program conducted in the evenings, designed to emphasize the linguistic approach to the study of grammar.
m. Use of teacher aides for non-instructional activities.

Research in English and Reading

In recognition of the value of research to educational leadership in general, and in acknowledgment of the value of research to state English and reading specialists in particular, the work-study research group of the Conference for State Supervisors of English and Reading identifies the following needs:

1. There is continual need for the definitive answers which research can give to educational leadership.
2. There is a continual need for discriminating judgment and professional interpretation of research findings.
3. There is a need for continued research activities of
    a. Colleges and universities.
    b. Private corporations.
    c. Local educational agencies.
    d. State and federal agencies.
    e. Professional organizations.
    f. Individuals.
4. There is an urgent need to emphasize the following points:
    a. Individuals and groups should not be exploited by research.
    b. Research in education has value only as it affects the learning experiences and increases the individual value of human beings.

We believe that notice should be taken of education and other life processes; that within this unity there is room for freedom and diversity. We recommend that particular attention be given to the following statement from *Review of Educational Research,* XXXIV, 2 (April, 1964), 255: "Although great strides have been made in theoretical formulations . . . there is a pressing need for the development of a comprehensive theory of language behavior that will not only unify the numerous research contributions in the psychology of language, reading, listening, speech, and mass communication but also give direction to applications of basic principles to classroom experiences in verbal learning."

Objectives

1. To define the role of state specialists in English and reading in research.
2. To consider ways and means for state specialists in English and reading to study, evaluate, and stimulate pertinent research and to disseminate, interpret, and apply its findings.
3. To identify problems and raise questions common to the position of state specialists in English and reading.

a. Should specialists in English and reading be involved in research activities of their state?
b. Is it possible for state specialists in English and reading to initiate and develop research activities which can be specifically funded for the conduct of research?
c. State specialists are not always aware of ongoing research in the fields of English and reading.
d. Some research studies are too limited in design, i.e., number of students involved, grade sequences involved, program articulation, continuum of learning.
e. Some present evaluative instruments and techniques are obsolete.
f. Valid and appropriate research findings should be more readily available for implementation in a local school situation.
g. There is a need for the interpretation of research studies and innovational programs to school personnel and laymen in a meaningful, objective, and unemotional approach.

Current Programs of Merit

Exclusive of Project English and experimental programs conducted by professional organizations, the following programs were cited by group participants as a sampling of studies of merit in their states.

Alabama

A project to identify the problems of functional illiterates as they exist in a southern county, and to test and evaluate experimental teaching methods.

Programs in literature and the humanities testing the effectiveness of team teaching techniques.

A statewide survey of the status of English including pupil performance and teacher qualifications.

Study in developmental reading programs (rising multisensory experiences) for the disadvantaged.

Oregon

Study to ferret out promising practices in Oregon classrooms (1-12) which will be evaluated according to Ronald Lippman (ASCD), *Strategy for Curriculum Change*.

A pilot program on the eleventh grade level developing a fusion curriculum for technical students involving teachers of all the disciplines. A syllabus written cooperatively by these teachers will be tested.

A mobile reading library as part of a developmental reading program (1-12) in a rural community.

Experiments in ungraded English programs (7-12) with thematic approach, team teaching, and tutorial provisions.

Montana

Experimental programs for nonreaders using audio equipment and books.

Experiments with nongraded materials (1-12) including programed materials.

Research project in independent study for selected high school seniors.

Experimental self-contained classrooms (high school level) for underachievers with a primary focus on language.

Florida

Statewide longitudinal study of reading readiness. (1-3)

Miami linguistics study for the development of proficiency in teaching English as a foreign language.

Statewide survey study to determine the effectiveness of English department chairmen in secondary schools.

Missouri

Pilot program for disadvantaged in reading: rooms of 20, pulling out 20 pupils per class for special instruction.

An individualized reading program for elementary schools.

An experiment in inquiry training in teaching of language arts. (K-12)

California

A study to develop and write a framework for English K-12 involving a statewide committee, professional organizations, and personnel from every school district in the state.

Experimental programs in the humanities in many high schools in California engaging personnel from three to eight disciplines.

San Diego Imperial study to develop materials for speakers of English as a second language.

A mandated legislative program for specialized reading instruction in the primary grades.

Pilot studies in i/t/a and programed reading materials.

A statewide study to determine the effectiveness of the English department chairmen in secondary schools.

Virginia

A comprehensive follow-up study of reading achievement at the second grade level and a continued study of the first grade level.

An investigation to determine the most effective activities for preparing teachers to conduct classroom experiences in linguistics and other approaches to English language study; for selecting and developing curriculum materials in the field of English language study; and for combining these elements in a sequential program for teaching the nature and structure of the English language.

A study of improvement in reading of underachieving children in the elementary school through the simultaneous impression of the written and auditory symbols of the same text.

A study of modifications needed for a more effective instructional program for boys.

A three-year study with primary children to determine the effects of extended reading instruction beyond basal developmental reading program upon reading achievement and general achievement.

Studies to determine the effectiveness of i/t/a, Open Court reading materials, programed instruction, and other differentiated instructional programs.

A study of perceptual training in the first grade and its effects on reading improvement.

Study of audiolingual teaching of English to slow learners at the ninth grade level.

Indiana

A study of the effects of a transformational approach to grammar study on the sentence maturity level of elementary pupils.

Pilot studies utilizing the team teaching approach in the secondary school English programs.

Experimental study using the oral-aural approach to composition.

Tennessee

A pilot study for an enrichment program for the culturally disadvantaged.

The Nashville Education Improvement Program—a pilot program for the culturally disadvantaged.

An achievement emphasis program for all children.

A study to determine a reading enrichment program for academically talented junior and senior high school Negro students.

An expanded and extended program of language development for first grade pupils not ready for formal reading instruction.

Texas

Project in beginning reading for bilinguals in San Antonio, using science and mathematics to develop cognitive skills necessary to reading.

South Carolina

Longitudinal studies to determine the effectiveness of differentiated reading instructional methods and media: i/t/a, programed materials, and linguistics.

Study in grades 7 and 11 in structural linguistics and transformational grammar, using selected instructional materials and evaluative instruments.

Pilot study to determine effective methods for teaching composition and selected literary works in grades 9 and 10.

Recommendations

The research group of this conference strongly recommends the following actions:

1. A Clearing House be established and maintained for the assimilation and dissemination of research information among the state education agencies, regions or groups of states, and the United States Office of Education, using such channels as (a) modern computerized hook-ups, (b) retrieval systems, (c) national educational television and telephones, (d) microfilms.
2. State department specialists be involved in research activities and that a special allocation of funds for these activities be made available. In addition, closer liaison should be established between subject matter specialists and existing divisions of research of state departments involving all pertinent, federally funded, educational projects.
3. A study be made of evaluative instruments and techniques measuring pupil performance and programs of curriculum and instruction in English and reading.
4. More longitudinal research studies be encouraged.
5. Professional journals in reading and English be encouraged to publish evaluations and interpretations of current research.
6. Research by English Curriculum Research and Development centers and professional organizations be continued.
7. Articulation with job opportunity and state employment agencies in regard to gaining help in developing preventative dropout curricula be encouraged.

Survey of Reading Retardation

Leon Eisenberg, M.D.

Today fully half the world's adults are wholly illiterate and not one third are "functionally" literate by the criterion of a fourth grade reading level (1). In 1956, by that standard, 11 percent of U.S. citizens could not read, the proportions varying by states from 3.9 to 28.7 percent (2). This is a measure of our failure and their failure, for to them are denied the riches of literature *and* the necessities of life. Employability is increasingly contingent upon literacy; those who fail to learn to read today will be the disadvantaged of tomorrow, impoverished in body and in soul.

Methods

How many children are defective readers, and where are they to be found? What personal and familial characteristics are associated with reading difficulty? If the answers to these questions are to be interpretable, we must first consider methods of measurement of reading competence.

Surveys of reading performance are based upon group tests of reading such as the Iowa, Stanford, California, Gates, and others. Typically, the test is standardized by scoring the results of its administration to a sample of children drawn from selected and presumably representative communities throughout the United States. Practical considerations determine that the test must be given to groups of children rather than individually administered. The test must be relatively brief in order to avoid fatiguing the child and in order to commend itself to school administrators for periodic systemwide surveys. Scoring must be simple; hence stems the reliance on multiple choice answers which permit machine scoring. In general, the tests that are given to upper classmen assume reading competence at the elementary level, again in keeping with the necessity for brevity; consequently, a child may receive a minimum nonzero score simply by appearing for the test and signing his name to it. To this basement grade score may then be added additional credit for successful guessing at answers; most standard tests do not penalize for errors (the Gates is an exception). As a result, clinical reading specialists usually report functional reading levels based upon individual examination that are one or more grades lower than those derived from the group tests.

The skills measured by the elementary reading tests are different from those demanded for successful completion of the intermediate and advanced batteries. At the lower levels, little more is required from the child than the ability to decode the visual symbols into recognizable words. At intermediate and advanced levels, comprehension is called much more directly into play; in consequence, performance will vary with vocabulary, level of reasoning, and general intellectual facility. One would expect, therefore, that the child with limited exposure to intellectual stimulation would be progressively more penalized at ascending grade levels.

Epidemiology

With these general considerations in mind and the further restriction that comparisons between systems employing different tests must be made with caution (3), let us look at the facts and figures that we can summon. In Figure 1, I have plotted the reading performance on the Stanford Test of the entire sixth grade population of a large urban center here named "Metropolis" (4). (It should be noted that children in special classes for mental retardation are *not* included.) Though the figures in this graph are precise and based upon actual figures from a single city, I shall not name the city, as naming would invite invidious comparisons. The findings serve to condemn not it but urban America. Twenty-eight percent of the sixth grade children are reading two or more grades below expected grade level, the conventional definition of severe reading retardation! With a median reading level of 5.2, the distribution is shifted significantly to the left; by definition of test construction, the median should lie at 6.5, the grade and month at which the test was administered.

Group intelligence tests administered to these children at the same time revealed a median I.Q. between 94 and 95. This may appeal to school personnel as a rationalization for the reading scores on the grounds that, had the children had the expected I.Q. median of 100, the theoretically constructed reading curve would be shifted well toward a more normal distribution. Before we buy this reassurance that all is well with the educational establishment, let us remember that the group I.Q. test requires reading for its comprehension; and success with it, no less than with the reading test, is a function of the educational experience of the child. It would be more accurate to state that *both* group I.Q. and reading levels are depressed in contemporary American urban school populations, given the circumstances of education and of life for the children who reside in the gray areas of our cities.

The epidemiologic significance of these data can be heightened by comparing them with those from other population groups. Figure 2 plots the reading scores for "Metropolis," for "Suburbia" (a county immediately outside Metropolis), and for children attending independent (that is, private) schools in Metropolis. So enormous are the differences that one could almost believe three different biological populations are represented here; yet everything we know would indicate that the children of Metropolis have the potential to do at least as well as those of Suburbia and, I would add, almost as well as those of the independent schools. If this be so, or even approximately so, then we have here, in the difference between what the children of Metropolis do do and what they could do, a scathing indictment of the indifference of our cities to the education of their children.

TABLE I
Sixth Grade Reading Levels
by School System

System	*Test*	*% Retarded*		*% Advanced*
		>2 yrs.	*>1 yr.*	*2 yrs.*
Metropolis	Stan.	28	57	9
Clinicounty	Cali.	15	35	8
Suburbia	Iowa	3	19	34
Independent	Stan.	0	1	82

Table I sets forth key reading parameters for the school populations of "Metropolis," "Suburbia," the independent schools, and "Clinicounty," a bedroom county (for exurbanite white collar workers) that includes pockets of rural, largely Negro, poverty. If we focus our attention on the percentage of children more than one year retarded in reading, Metropolis has failure rates ⅔ higher than Clinicounty, 3 times higher than Suburbia, and more than 50 times higher than the independent schools. Similar discrepancies obtain at the other end of the reading spectrum. Success rates, as measured by the percentages of children more than two years advanced in reading, are 9 times higher in the independent schools than in Metropolis or Clinicounty and 2.4 times higher than in Suburbia.

Let us now turn to other demographic characteristics as a basis for comparative analysis of population groups. Rates by sex (for Clinicounty) reveal that the number of retarded readers among boys (19.5%) is more than twice as high as that for girls (9.0%), a finding consistent with other surveys of reading performance (5, 6) and a point to which we shall return.

We have thus far examined rates by area of residence and by sex. What of rates by race? This question is not readily answerable for many urban school systems; for, although the schools may not be fully integrated, the records are, much, one suspects, to the relief of administrators when irate citizen groups raise questions about the adequacy of education for Negro children. The data from Clinicounty, however, did permit computation of rates by race. Whereas 12 percent of the white children were two or more years retarded in reading, a failure rate alarming enough in itself, the corresponding figure for Negro children was 36 percent, 3 times as great! (Within each ethnic group, the male rate remains significantly higher than the female rate, 16.8% to 7.1% for whites and 42% to 26% for

Negroes.) These figures become somewhat more explicable when we add the information that only 7 percent of the white families in Clinicounty as against 62 percent of the Negro families fall into social class V, the very bottom of the economic heap.

Sources of Retardation in Reading

Epidemiologic surveys employing a crude measure like group reading levels suffer from the inherent limitation that they treat by a common statistic cases that vary widely in the nature of the underlying pathology. We would not expect to learn much that is useful about the epidemiology of infections if we studied the distribution in a population of fever without regard to its source. Yet this has been the common practice in respect to reading. It is not therefore surprising that competent investigators have been led to contrary conclusions about the role of handedness, heredity, perceptual handicap and the like, when each has examined a heterogeneous sample of cases defined only by its reading performance.

To order our further inquiry, it is convenient to divide the sources of retarded reading into two major groups: the sociopsychological and the psychophysiological, with full realization that this dichotomy is both arbitrary and inaccurate. Given the differential distribution by social class of the complications of pregnancy and parturition, of the availability of adequate nutrition and medical care, one could equally well classify brain injury under the heading *sociophysiological*. However, the axis of classification employed in Table II can provide a useful basis for a preliminary examination of the types of retarded readers.

TABLE II
Provisional Classification:
The Sources of Reading Retardation

A. Sociopsychological Factors
    1. Quantitative and Qualitative Defects in Teaching
    2. Deficiencies in Cognitive Stimulation
    3. Deficiencies in Motivation
        a. Associated with Social Pathology
        b. Associated with Psychopathology ("Emotional")
B. Psychophysiological Factors
    1. General Debility
    2. Sensory Defects
    3. Intellectual Defects
    4. Brain Injury
    5. Specific (Idiopathic) Reading Disability

Defects in Teaching

No one would expect a child who had not been taught to learn to read. Yet there are children in the United States who are late in beginning school, who attend irregularly, whose school year is foreshortened to conform to the farming season, and who therefore experience a significant loss of exposure to teaching. These are the children of sharecroppers and of migratory workers. Similar academic ills befall children of disorganized families who move from one tenement, and hence one school district, to another.

But even those urban or rural children of the poor who attend school more or less as required by law suffer a serious deficit in teaching. The schools they attend are likely to be overcrowded, are more often staffed by less qualified teachers, are more beset by problems of discipline to the detriment of teaching time, and employ traditional methods of teaching that, however adequate they may be for the middle class child, are highly inappropriate for the special educational needs of the disadvantaged. No less devastating is the pessimistic conviction of many teachers and many administrators that such children lack the necessary wherewithal to learn. This belief may be couched in terms of the restricted intellectual stimulation in the child's home or may be more nakedly racist in adherence to ideas of biological inferiority. Whatever the source of the conviction, it influences the performance of the teacher, the expectations he sets for the child, and the ultimate attainment in the classroom. Without a direct challenge to these conventional beliefs, educational progress will not be possible.

Under the heading of defects in teaching, every audience will expect some discussion of the "look-say" (whole word) method versus phonics. Attacks on the look-say method have their fad; they appeal to traditionalism and suggest a cheap and easy answer to contemporary problems by returning to the ways of the good old days. Such evidence as there is indicates that the average first grader learns equally well by either method. That the look-say primers have been full of drivel: "Here, Tip! Run, Jane! Look, look, look!" (Damn, damn, damn!) is not inherent in the whole word method but must be attributed to the vacuousness of the uninspired authors of these nonbooks. The excellence of the teacher and a class size small enough to permit individualization of instruction are probably more important than the choice of method. An either-or formulation is in any event absurd; a competent teacher should know the several ways of teaching reading in order to capitalize on the ability profile of the particular child. Recent information on the Initial Teaching Alphabet (ITA) suggests that it may reduce the number of nonreaders and may be particularly helpful in teaching the urban slum child.

Deficiencies in Cognitive Stimulation

Although by definition the formal education of the child begins when he enters school, there has in fact been a quite extraordinary transformation in his mental apparatus during the first six years of life at home. From an only intermittently conscious organism with a limited repertoire of reflexes at birth, he has become a self-conscious, speaking, reasoning, and imaginative being. This developmental explosion accompanies a tripling of brain weight and an enormous increase in the number of connections between cells, but it is no mere unfolding of an innate process. How fast it happens and how far it goes are, within limits, a direct result of the amount and variety of patterned stimulation supplied by the environment (7).

If a child does not hear language, he will not speak. If he is exposed to a less differentiated language experience, he will speak and understand less well. The slum child has had less training in listening to sustained and grammatically complex speech, less exposure to the extensive vocabulary of our language, and less reinforcement for his own verbal efforts. He exhibits defects in auditory attention and perception, performs less well on vocabulary tests (especially when challenged by abstract words), and is less responsive to verbal instructions in the classroom (8, 9).

Many inner city children have never been more than a few blocks from their home; the museums, symphony halls, even the zoos and amusement parks of their communities are foreign territory to them. Books, magazines, even newspapers are infrequent companions; they are not often read to. Exercises with paper and pencil, puzzles, and sedentary games with formal rules are uncommon. They have been shortchanged of experiences that, for other children, serve to build concepts and set the ground for learning to learn (10). Yet their lives have, in no sense, been blank. Scrounging in the streets, dodging cars for a game of stick ball, avoiding cops, defending themselves from youthful and adult predators alike, they have had to learn the complex arts of survival in the slums. In so doing, they acquire behavior traits that *interfere actively* with the acquisition of the patterns required for success in the classroom. To note that these children are different is not to convict them of being defective. The figures from Metropolis make appallingly clear their failure to learn *as they have been taught*. This, however, is a failure of the teaching, not the children (11).

Deficiencies in Motivation

Intelligence tests have been the best available single predictors of academic success, but the highest correlations obtained between I.Q. and grade averages have been on the order of 0.6. Statistically, then, "intelligence" (or whatever I.Q. tests measure) accounts at best for one third of the variance in academic performance. This is hardly surprising; we all recognize it when we choose staff members and employees, house officers and colleagues by estimating the degree of their motivation as well as their talent. Motivation, like intelligence, is shaped by the environment; in this shaping, both social class values and idiosyncratic life experiences play a role.

When parents fail to reinforce a child for good school performance or to chastise him for academic misbehavior; when they convey a belief that school success bears little relationship to ultimate occupation attainment; when they share with the child a view of school authorities as repressive agents employed by a society hostile to their values, they provide little support for the development of achievement motivation. The beliefs on which these behaviors are predicted are not myths; they are constructed from the social reality of the slum dweller. These beliefs may lead—indeed, they do lead—to the self-perpetuation of defeat and alienation, but that does not make them untrue. The Negro high school graduate is more often unemployed and, when employed, earns less than the white graduate. Unemployment rates for young workers, white and Negro, are disproportionately high; unchecked, the crisis will grow worse as population trends lead to an increase in this age group (12). The examples of success that sustained previous generations of immigrants from abroad have been replaced by examples of failure in homes and on street corners that discourage all but the hardiest of today's domestic immigrants from farm and mine. For this, the solution will not lie in the schools but in the creation of job opportunities with equal access to all.

However, teacher attitudes may serve to consolidate a conviction of the hopelessness of it all. Educators are satisfied with less from the lower class child because they expect less; their expectations form part of the social field that molds the child and determines, in part, what he does. He arrives at school ill prepared; his initial poor performance leads to "streaming" in low ability sections; the limited teaching further retards his learning; he completes his "education" less able than others; ironically, the terminal product is used to justify the system (13). But is it not apparent that the operation of the system has guaranteed fulfillment of the prophecy? Schiffman (14) in a study of 84 elementary school children referred for placement in classes for "slow learners" because of academic failure, found that 78 percent had Wechsler performance quotients in the average or better range; yet only 7 percent of their teachers identified them as other than dull, and only 14 percent of their parents recognized their potential. Need it surprise us that 86 percent of the children rated *themselves* as dull or defective? With such a self-image, affirmed at school and at home, what shall it profit a child to try?

With or without social disadvantage, individual psychopathology is a frequent concomitant of retardation in reading. On the one hand, school difficulties are among the major complaints presented at every psychiatric clinic for children; on the other, physicians who have studied retarded readers have uniformly noted a high association with emotional disturbance (15-18). The correlation with antecedent family pathology (18) indicates that, in a substantial number of cases, the psychiatric disorder is a source of the reading problem. No single pattern of psychopathology is characteristic. Reading failure is a final common pathway for the expression of a multiplicity of antecedent disruptions in learning.

At the same time, it must be recognized that the reading difficulty is in itself a potent source of emotional distress. Embarrassed by fumbling recitations before his peers, cajoled, implored, or bullied by his parents and his teachers to do what he cannot, the retarded reader is at first disturbed and finally despondent about himself. His ineptness in reading penalizes him in all subjects and leads to his misidentification as a dullard. With class exercises conducted in what for him is a foreign language, he turns to other diversions, only to be chastised for disruptive behavior. However begun, the psychiatric disturbance and the reading disability are mutually reinforcing in the absence of effective intervention (19).

Psychophysiological Sources

The psychophysiological sources of reading retardation can be divided into five major categories: general debility, sensory defects, intellectual defects, brain injury, and idiopathic or specific reading disability. Overlap and multiple conjunction of causes are common.

General Debility

Discussions of reading retardation do not list general debility among its causes, but this is a serious oversight. The child who is chronically malnourished and the one who is chronically ill can hardly be expected to perform adequately in school. I mention them here only to stress the importance of a thorough pediatric examination as the first step in the evaluation of any child with a learning failure.

Sensory Defects

Defects in seeing and hearing impede information transmission over the primary channels whose integration is required for reading. Visual defect leads to reading handicap only when acuity is reduced by half or more (20). With respect to hearing, however, there is increasing evidence that children with normal pure tone auditory thresholds may nonetheless do poorly at discriminating speech sounds (21) and may not be able to integrate information between sense channels, as in the task of converting auditory to visual signals (22). These deficits may stem from central nervous system pathology or from faulty perceptual experience. In either case, corrective training to minimize this source of difficulty would appear logical.

Intellectual Defects

An intellectual defect can be expected to limit reading achievement as a function of its severity. The assessment of this factor requires individual clinical examination by a competent psychologist and cannot be based upon group testing. The prognosis will, of course, vary with the nature of the underlying disorder as well as the degree of mental deficiency.

However, even moderately retarded children can learn to read enough to transact the ordinary business of life, if teaching methods take into account the learning characteristics of the defective child.

Brain Injury

Children with chronic brain syndromes are at high risk for learning disabilities, though there is no simple one-to-one relationship between amount or locus of damage and ultimate academic achievement (23). The clinician should be alert to the high percentage of learning problems and to the need for special teaching techniques for children with neurological abnormalities. Occasionally children with brain tissue damage sufficient to result in mental deficiency of moderate degree are nonetheless able, in the elementary grades, to attain above average fluency in oral reading, although their comprehension of what they have read is minimal. Such instances are instructive in several respects. They serve to remind us of the variability of the clinical patterns observed in brain injured children; they indicate the complex nature of the reading process, in which word recognition and sentence comprehension are separable skills; they emphasize the importance of a thorough reading analysis in complement to a comprehensive pediatric assessment in the work up of each case of reading retardation.

Specific Reading Disability

We turn now to the important residual category of specific reading disability, also known as congenital word blindness (24), primary reading retardation (25), and developmental dyslexia (26). The adjective "specific" calls attention both to the circumscribed nature of the disability and to our ignorance of its cause. Specific reading disability may be defined as the failure to learn to read with normal proficiency despite conventional instruction, a culturally adequate home, proper motivation, intact senses, normal intelligence, and freedom from gross neurologic defect.

There are no reliable data on which to base a secure estimate of the prevalence of specific reading disability; such surveys as exist record only the extent of retardation in reading on group tests without differentiation as to cause. Clinical reports indicate a much higher rate of occurrence among boys, the male/female ratio generally exceeding 4 to 1 (26). This disproportion is similar to, but higher than, the surplus of boys among retarded readers from all causes, among children designated as academically backward (5), and among children referred to psychiatric clinics (27). Some have sought to explain these figures on the grounds of greater cultural pressure upon boys for academic success; this may account for some differential in rates of identification insofar as standards for boys may be more exacting. But it is noteworthy that boys are in general slower to acquire verbal facility and are more prone to exhibit behaviors in the early school grades that teachers label "immature." It would seem more parsimonious to relate these disproportions to the greater biological vulnerability of the male to a wide variety of ills; from the moment of conception onwards, there is a significant differential in morbidity and mortality between sexes, such that an original surplus of males is converted to its opposite by the time adulthood is attained (28, 29).

Many authorities have called to attention, as though they were diagnostic of specific reading disability, such phenomena as reversals (*was* for *saw*, *gril* for *girl*), mirror writing, confusion of certain letters (*b,d,p,q*), omitted or added words, perseverations, skipped or repeated lines, and the like. These very same errors occur as the normal child learns to read; what distinguishes the dyslexic is the frequency and persistence of these errors well beyond the time at which they have become uncommon in the normal.

The failure of many investigators to adhere to defined criteria for the diagnosis and to recognize the importance of the age variable accounts for some of the contradictory findings reported in the literature. It does seem that left-handedness and, more especially, delayed or inconsistent laterality occur more often among dyslexics (though many are typical dextrals), but it is quite another matter to suggest that "incomplete cerebral dominance" accounts for the reading problem. The determination of laterality is not so simple as once thought (30), nor is "brainedness" so readily to be inferred from handedness (31). The apparent association between delayed establishment of laterality and the reading defect seems more probably related to a common underlying developmental antecedent than as cause and effect. Perceptual handicaps are more often found in younger than in older dyslexics (32). This change with age may reflect the developmental course of perception (33). The older child may no longer exhibit the handicap which may have been prominent at a critical stage in the learning process and have contributed to the failure to learn to read.

We are left with the unanswered question of the nature of the defect, even if we accept the proposition that it is biological. Critchley supposes it to be due to "specific cerebral immaturity" but adds that he doubts the existence of "a structural lesion recognizable by present-day techniques" (34). Geschwind (35) has advanced the notion that there is "delayed maturation of the angular gyrus region, probably bilaterally." Geschwind argues that, since lesions of the angular gyrus in the adult result in word blindness, delay in its development might account for specific reading disability in childhood. Against this thesis is the opinion of other neurologists that pure word blindness is neither so "pure" nor so consistently associated with specific lesions as classical doctrine alleges.

The Development of Reading Skill: An Action Program

The evidence marshalled in this paper has, I trust, persuaded you of the integral relationship between reading and intellectual development, of the appalling extent of retardation in reading among American school children, and of the multiple sources of interference to the acquisition of literacy. Permit me, in my concluding remarks, to outline the areas in which prompt social action can promote the healthy development of children. Those areas, as I see them, are (a) maternal and child health programs, (b) health and education programs for the preschool child, and (c) revised curricula and classroom conditions throughout the years of public schooling.

Maternal and Child Health Programs

At the level of primary prevention, there is a clear need for comprehensive maternal and child health programs to diminish the complications of pregnancy, childbirth, and the newborn period that lead to injury to the brain of the infant (36). Malnutrition, poor hygiene, and inadequate medical care are among the causal factors subject to control if we but have the determination to apply present knowledge and resources (37-39). Current federal legislation provides us with a splendid opportunity for progress. Medical interest will have to extend beyond vaccinations and cursory physical examinations to sensitive concern with cognitive as well as physical development. Special programs will be necessary for mothers at highest risk: the unmarried, the very young and the old, the Negro, the mother with prior history of obstetrical difficulty. It should not be tolerated that the pregnant high school student is merely dismissed from school; health care and provision for supplementary education are essential.

Preschool Programs

Preschool enrichment via Project Headstart has opened the vista of large scale efforts to foster early cognitive development. Dr. Keith Conners and I conducted a study to evaluate the results obtained by Headstart in Baltimore which enrolled some 480 children in a public school run program and 65 in a church nursery. With the assistance of Red Cross volunteers, we tested the Headstart children in the first week of the program (H_1), in its sixth and final week (H_2), and again one month later when the children entered kindergarten (H_3). At the same time (September 1965), we tested an additional 420 children from the same neighborhoods, attending the same schools, but who had not had the summer enrichment program (C). These children served as controls to permit us to determine how much, if any, change resulted from Headstart. The two tests we employed in this phase of our study were the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) and the Draw-a-Person Test (DAP).

The mean scores for the Headstart children at each testing, for the controls and for the original Peabody standardization sample, are shown in Table III. The differences between each pair of Headstart tests are statistically significant (showing steady progress), and the Headstart children were clearly superior to the controls when both entered school in September. However, despite the marked improvement, the Headstart mean scores were still well behind those for a group of five-year-old nonslum children (standard sample).

TABLE III
PPVT Raw Scores for Headstart and Controls

	Headstart			*Controls*	*Standard*
Test Period	H_1	H_2	H_3	C	
Test Form	Form A	Form B	Form A	Form A	
Mean	32.63	36.83	39.74	33.65	50.22
Sigma	12.33	10.82	11.34	11.70	8.17
(N)	(424)	(423)	(413)	(402)	(133)

Differences Significant at $p < 0.0001$:
H_2 vs H_1; H_3 vs H_2; H_2 vs C; H_3 vs C
No Significant Difference Between C and H_1

Table IV shows the mean scores on the Draw-a-Person Test for the Headstart children at each test period and for the controls. Again, the Headstart children are clearly superior to the controls in September. In these data, however, there is some evidence of change over the ten-week period in the controls in that they score higher in September than did the Headstart children in late June when they entered the program.

TABLE IV
Draw-a-Person Test Raw Scores for Headstart and Controls

	Headstart			*Controls*
Test Period	H_1	H_2	H_3	C
Mean	7.71	9.10	9.75	8.91
Sigma	4.79	4.20	4.41	4.98
(N)	(500)	(476)	(435)	(420)

H_2 vs H_1, p 0.0001; H_3 vs H_2, $p < 0.01$
H_3 vs C, $p < 0.001$
H_2 vs C–No Significant Difference but
C vs H_1, $p < 0.001$

On both tests, then, there is strong evidence for significant gains attributable to the Headstart program.

Improved School Programs

If preschool enrichment is not augmented by substantial revision of traditional school services, there is little reason to anticipate significant long run benefit. None of us would expect a good diet at the age of 3 to protect against malnutrition at 6. The brain requires nourishment both biological and psychological at each stage of the life cycle; early nourishment is necessary but not sufficient to guarantee its development. The precedent shattering federal aid to education bill recognizes for the first time a national responsibility to improve the quality of education; the funds made available are but a token of what will be required ultimately. If we allow them to be used to supplant state funds or merely to be spread thinly throughout the system, no palpable changes will result. The best teachers must be attracted to slum area schools; class size must be reduced; curricula must be modified. School programs will have to be extended to include after-school tutoring and recreational activities. What I am emphasizing is capital investment in human renewal, the very principle that has paid off so handsomely in our industrial enterprise.

Permit me one final point. Most school systems introduce remedial reading instruction at the third grade or later (if they have it at all). The justification is one of economy. Of those children not reading at the end of first grade, perhaps half manage to pass muster by the end of the second grade; a few more of the remainder learn to read by standard instruction by the end of the third grade. These children are the "late bloomers," youngsters who, for unknown reasons, acquire late, but do acquire, the capacity to profit from conventional teaching. By waiting till the third grade, the school system has spared itself the cost of extra teaching for children who were going to make it on their own. This "economy," however, must be balanced against the cost to those children who, by the third grade, are deeply imprisoned in faulty learning habits, have become convinced of their ineptness, and now respond poorly to any but the most expert individual clinical instruction. Surely, this country can afford to do better by its children. It is essential that we identify the child who is not beginning to read by the second semester of the first grade, institute a careful diagnostic study, and provide the appropriate remedial education. If this means that we will be giving extra help to a child not in need of it for each child who requires it, then I urge that we do so. The surplus child will not be harmed and may be benefited; the dyslexic child will be reached at a time when the chance of success is greatest. We would not hear of delaying therapy for rheumatic fever because not every patient incurs heart disease; how then can we tolerate a view that is equivalent to saying: let us make certain the child cannot read and is really in trouble before we give him extra help? An effective program for early identification and treatment might even produce long run savings if we take into account the cost of prolonged treatment and ultimate losses in the economic productivity of the handicapped readers. But my argument places no weight on such matters. Where the healthy development of children is concerned, financial considerations are simply irrelevant.

But if we are to provide the leadership that will convince our fellow countrymen of the importance of investment in human renewal, we must first be convinced ourselves of the potential in the children we teach. We must understand that intelligence develops through experience and through challenge and is in no sense a fixed quantity (40).

The myth of immutability of intelligence has served through the ages as an intellectual barrier to social progress. Recall only the myth of the men of gold, silver, brass, and iron offered in Plato's *Republic* to persuade the citizens to accept their destiny in the state. Socrates, after attesting to the value of truth, goes on to say: "Then if anyone at all is to have the privilege of lying, the rulers of the State should be the persons . . . to lie for the public good." "How," Glaucon asks, "may we devise one of these useful falsehoods. . . ?" And Socrates responds "Citizens, we shall say to them in our tale, you are brothers, yet God has framed you differently. Some of you have the power to command, and in the composition of these he has mingled gold, wherefore also they have the greatest honor; others he has made of silver, to be auxiliaries; others again who are to be husbandmen and craftsmen he has composed of brass and iron: and the species will generally be preserved in the children." He adds: "Any meddlesome interchange between the three classes would be most mischievous to the State and could properly be described as the height of villainy."

But precisely this myth, no more mellow for all its age, is offered us today to justify the divisions of society. If we accept it, we deny to the husbandmen and the craftsmen full citizenship in our society and to that society the silver and gold they can bring to it. To every child must be given the education which alone will enable him to work to the fullest the precious ores within him. Only so can we build a true and strong republic. Only so can we build a world in which men will live as brothers.

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Address

The Preparation of Language Arts Teachers

Olive S. Niles

A short time ago, I heard a scientist say that by 1975 all engineers will daily be using facts in their work which nobody—not even the most advanced research physicist in his laboratory—knows today. George Hillicks (1), former director of the Project English Demonstration Center at Euclid, Ohio, points out that the average high school student today will change occupations five times within his productive life. Obviously, he will have to learn new skills with each change and, quite probably, develop new attitudes as well.

We have heard so much about the explosion of knowledge that these facts no longer surprise us very much. We have become accustomed to the concept of obsolescence and habituated to living in a world where everything we once thought we knew is questioned and the very foundations upon which we built our philosophy of education totter under our feet. This is both the penalty and the reward for being a teacher at this time in history.

Teachers of the English language arts, faced with such facts and problems as these, need help. There are, I believe, three basic recommendations which offer the most hope for success. Two of these I will only mention; the third I should like to discuss in some detail in this paper.

The first, and undoubtedly the most important, is improved preparation of teachers of the language arts. As the National Council of Teachers of English (3) has pointed out, "the preparation of English teachers nationally is probably far worse than the profession would like to imagine." It is obvious that a massive assault on the development of teachers to work in the language arts field is critically needed. There are times when I think we should drop everything else and put all our money and energy into this one endeavor. Without better teachers everything else may be wasted.

However, a second major effort which, it seems to me, is indicated by current conditions is the rapid implementation of changes in objectives of language arts curricula. There must be more than a theoretical shift away from specific content and toward basic skills, broad understandings, and critical attitudes as the major goals of English language instruction. There are still many English teachers who think revising a course of study in literature means making changes in the required books to be read at each grade level. They seem convinced that it really matters whether students read *Macbeth* or *Hamlet, Silas Marner*, or *Great Expectations*. Some teachers are actually shocked when they hear or read that there is no such thing as language which in isolation can be said to be "correct." This authoritarian point of view about language is impossible if we are to teach English in this age of crisis.

Trying to help teachers support a shift in the objectives of teaching is, of course, closely allied to both preservice and inservice education, for we must help them to achieve the background of information which makes it possible for us to get them to change objectives without either eliciting from them a last-ditch fight to maintain tradition or immobilizing them by insisting they teach a vast amount of new knowledge.

Jerome Bruner (4) expresses the point in professional language: "The fifth and final thing to be said about the nature of knowledge is that it is exploding. Though there are many more facts, there are far more powerful theories with which to reduce or implode them to an order that can be understood. The working solution to the knowledge explosion is to cultivate the art of connecting things that are akin, connecting them into the structures that give them significance. If one needed a single argument for reemphasizing concepts and structure in the design of a curriculum, this one would, I think, suffice."

"The art of connecting things"—this, I think, is of major importance for our consideration at this time. We need to feel the oneness of English, to analyze the many interrelationships among the various components of the subject, and to combine this analysis with practical know-how about using these interrelationships in the classroom. English instruction should not be a patchwork quilt; rather it must be a closely woven design in which each concept or skill is seen in its many applications, and understandings are built which relate each part of the subject to as many other parts as possible.

The idea, of course, is not new. It goes back at least to the 30's when *An Experience Curriculum in English* (5) deplored isolated "academic exercises in spelling, using effective detail in narrative, noting the effect of the similies in *Sohrab and Rustum*" and recommended the integration of such matters both among themselves and with the life experience itself. However, we still have many teachers for whom Friday is spelling day and Tuesday is for library reading.

We have given much thought in recent years to vertical sequence in curriculum; a few authorities have been concerned theoretically with horizontal relationships, but I think very little of this theory has affected what actually goes on in the classroom. The language arts curriculum of the immediate future must somehow, I believe, contain both vertical and horizontal continuity.

Assuming that we agree that competence in the language arts can be rapidly achieved only when teachers appreciate the oneness of English and can plan lessons which help children to grow simultaneously in interrelated skills, we may look at some practices which will, I think, bring us closer to this goal.

Most basic of all is the recognition of the close relationship of linguistics and semantics to reading and reading instruction. This is becoming increasingly clear not only in the rather obvious phonemic relationships represented in the so-called linguistic approach to primary reading but, far more importantly, I think, in teaching procedures which bring into focus understandings of meaning-bearing patterns of language. Children like to play with words, and as they do so in speech or in writing they develop a feeling of power in dealing with the words they read. Though most teachers probably would not imagine that they were teaching reading in this kind of lesson, I think we may have the key to helping children read sentences, something we have never succeeded in doing with traditional grammar. We can, I believe, teach children to read sentences by teaching them to build sentences in speech or writing.

Semantic understandings also cut across all phases of the language arts program and act as unifying principles. On a very simple level, we are concerned with multiple meanings of words. In reading or listening, the child is taught to expect context to determine the particular meaning. He learns that the meaning of a word is often highly ambiguous until it is used in a larger structure which modifies or controls the meaning of the single word. He enjoys learning about shifts of word meaning and the reasons for them—for example, what has happened to the word *comrade*—and about the coining of new words like *splashdown* and *heliport* and, of course, *sputnik*. With good teaching, even the small child becomes fascinated by such simple facts as that even *dog* has different meanings for different people—personal meanings—and that since we have so few words to express so many meanings, we must resort to metaphor. Literature uses metaphor to express its most complicated ideas, but even little children can grasp this essential understanding about how language works.

Students also need to know how dictionaries are made, for knowledge of this process dramatizes for them the fact that language is alive and helps them to understand so much they will encounter as they work with words in all aspects of the language arts. Postman and Weingartner describe a project in a tenth grade in a New Jersey high school in which the students were given the assignment to write a "teenage dictionary." Their first job was to discover what a dictionary does, a job which led them straight into the controversy which surrounded the publication of *Webster's Third New International*. The teenage dictionary required a preface stating the assumptions on which the book was based. As Postman (6) says, the students produced a document worthy in itself "but it was the process of doing it that produced the greatest amount of learning—learning about language as well as learning about the inquiry process."

The closest kinship of reading to any other single phase of the use of language is probably with listening. Reading and listening are alike in most all major respects and can easily be taught together. The skills and attitudes essential to one are also essential to the other, with the one major difference that listening does not require the translation of printed symbols. Children learn to derive meaning from oral symbols long before they can deal with written symbols, and listening comprehension exceeds reading comprehension for young children until about grade six and permanently for slow learners. This is because for both young children and slow learners the translation of the printed symbol to the spoken word is a difficult process.

Listening skills are important for themselves—increasingly so, but they are important also for the relationship they bear to the reading process. If we take care to set purposes for listening, as I hope we do for reading —listen for the main idea, listen for sensory imagery, listen for clues to character—for any of the skills usually taught in reading, we are giving the children essentially the same kind of comprehending experience they would have if they were reading the same material. Research has not yet established the degree of transfer to be expected from such listening experiences; in fact, there has been little research into this matter. It seems clear to me, however, that the transfer to be expected will be closely related not to the *amount* of listening which is done but to the *way* it is done. If teachers make clear to children the sameness of the skills involved, a good deal of transfer, in my opinion, is to be expected.

There are, indeed, some reading skills which probably are *better* taught through listening than through reading itself. Farrell (7), in a delightful account of his own experiences in hearing literature read by skillful teachers, states: "I began to learn the sound of literature, to develop an inner ear to guide me in my attempts to discriminate between the shoddy and the pretentious and the valuable and true in all writing." Again, speaking of the problems of teaching literature to culturally handicapped children: "If youngsters are coming from backgrounds . . . in which even the conversation they hear is impoverished, consisting most often of commands and categorical statements, lacking in intellectual content and causal reasoning, then we must read to them if we ever expect them to be able to read by themselves; for the act of reading literary prose is the act of silently speaking to the printed page, or if one prefers, of hearing the page silently speak."

Now what of reading and speaking? Here again relationships are multiple and varied. As we have already noted in the case of listening, one important consideration is the case of the culturally different child. Thomas (8) checked the words used in their speech by children living in low socioeconomic urban areas against the vocabulary of three series of first grade basal readers and found that the children used orally about 50 percent of the words in the readers.

This problem, as Strickland (9) points out, is not confined to vocabulary alone. "If a child rarely or never twists his tongue or his mind around complex or complex-compound sentences, the probability is that he will read them badly and with little depth of comprehension when he encounters them in a book."

As we work intensively with culturally different children, we realize more and more the values of the experience approach to reading. A bonus is derived from the way in which this approach relates speech and reading, giving the teacher an opportunity to work with both in the same lesson. Nor is the problem confined to the underprivileged child, though it is dramatized in his case. Any person of any age who attempts to read without an adequate speaking and understanding vocabulary based upon meaningful experience can only partly read, if he can read at all. The culturally different first grader with his middle class preprimer is in the same boat as the graduate student in a statistics book without a background in mathematics. Anyone who cannot talk the language of whatever he may wish to read will have great difficulty with the reading.

Using reading as a springboard to writing has been a common practice in two distinct ways: to provide a source of ideas and to provide models of form and technique. Mauree Applegate has compared an idea for writing to a mosquito bite: you don't know you have it till it bothers you. These mosquito bites come from two main sources: life experience and reading. Olson (10) describes the use of reading experiences to stimulate writing in a paper presented in the NEA bulletin, *Improving English Composition.* In grade 10, for example, Frost's "The Death of the Hired Man" was taught, related to previously read works such as *Silas Marner* and *The Pearl,* and used to arouse discussion of the theme of acceptance and nonacceptance. As the class discussed this theme they were being prepared for the composition assignment on the subject "Am I My Brother's Keeper?" This is one way, then, in which reading and writing are related and can profitably be taught together.

Reading and spelling are also natural partners. If we ask what makes the good speller, we find that three of the basic elements are common also to the child who is expert in word recognition: keen visual memory, an accurate ear for sound, and a working knowledge of the structure of words. Good teaching of spelling is concerned not with the particular words children learn but with the underlying power they are developing to spell any word they may need to spell. In a first grade class, pupils might be learning to substitute consonant sounds as in *hit, bit, sit,* or *hit, him, hid.* No one could tell whether this is a reading lesson or a spelling lesson because it is both. In ninth grade, students could be learning the facts about the varied spellings of such a prefix as *ad* in *advent, affiliate, associate, apply.* Is this reading or spelling? Reading because the meanings of these words are clarified by recognition of the common prefix: spelling because the structure of the word provides reasons for the spelling.

Finally, as we have seen, teachers often make a distinction between teaching literature and teaching reading as if they were two different things. In fact, they often object to thinking of them in relation to each other on the grounds that teaching reading skills while working with a piece of literature will somehow ruin appreciation. With very young children, literature is probably best presented through listening rather than reading, but as soon as children are independent readers, literature is the medium through which many reading skills must be taught. How else can children learn to find clues to character, to understand plot sequence, to react to the rhythm of poetry? The skills appropriate to the reading of literature are a basic part of the content of any literature course, and the literature teacher's purpose must be multiple: to teach the skills appropriate to the piece involved, to develop interest in worthwhile content, and to induct the child into the methodology of the writer's art.

This oneness of the language arts must be understood not only by the teacher in the interests of efficiency of teaching but by the children themselves in the interests of full appreciation of what they are learning. We talk a great deal about transfer. All the evidence indicates that we get the transfer we plan to get and not much more. Planning for transfer means acquainting the children with these connections, these interrelationships, this *oneness*, so that they will know they are learning both to read and to speak, to read and to spell, to read and to listen, to read and to write.

We come back full circle to the most basic consideration of all: the need for better trained teachers of English at every grade level. The kind of teaching which takes full advantage of the basic integration in the discipline called English is based upon sophisticated insights into the nature of this subject. Only when English educators accept the fundamental unity of a multicomponent English discipline can we begin to develop adequate teaching methods, which will insure our students mastery of their native language.

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Children and Poetry

Nancy Larrick

The magic of poetry is something to be cherished and capitalized on. I have become convinced that poetry is closer to the child—his language, his imagination, his sense of rhythm, his urge to create—than any other form of literature.

From infancy, children respond to poetry. Even in the cradle, a baby pays attention to the sound of his mother's voice as she sings a nursery song or lullaby. Soon he begins to sway in his crib or playpen in time to the melody.

Rhythm and repetition are the child's way. Listen to the monologue of a three- or four-year-old at play, and you are likely to hear a rhythmical flow of words and ideas strongly suggestive of modern free verse. Claudia Lewis of the Bank Street College of Education has recorded many such examples in her remarkable little book *Writing for Young Children* (originally published by Simon and Schuster, but now out of print).

The language of a young child is fresh and imaginative. If you have any doubts, spend a few hours with the parents of a three- or four-year-old. They are ready to quote the latest vivid statement of their little one, seldom realizing that almost all young children—given a chance to use oral language freely—come up with equally fresh and imaginative comments. (By the way, you don't hear the parents of a ten- or eleven-year-old telling about his poetic language because somewhere along the way he has slipped from the colorful and rhythmical language of his early childhood to the more routine, cliché-ridden language of adulthood.)

One of the most wonderful collections of the poetic language of childhood is entitled *From Two to Five* by the Russian poet Kornei Chukovsky (University of California Press). Notice the figurative language of these youngsters as reported by Chukovsky.

One said, "A turkey is a duck with a bow around its neck."

Another: "Make a fire, daddy, so that it can fly up into the sky and make the sun and stars."

Or this one: "Lie down on my pillow, Mommie, we'll look at my dream together."

Hannah Trimble, upon retiring as classroom teacher in Indiana, gave us a delightful collection of equally imaginative written comments of children in her *New York Times Magazine* article entitled "Out of the Mouths of the Third Grade."

"Yesterday it was raining," reported one, "I ran out to the barn. The rain looked like arrows of glass shot up from the ground."

Another wrote, "This morning when I was coming to school I saw leaves with ice and when I stepped on them, they rang out like tiny bells."

Both of these contain two of the essential elements of poetry—music and imagination.

We are finding that one of the most effective ways to introduce children to poetry is to begin with simple figures of speech, which are natural to the child and basic to poetry. As adults we use figures of speech quite readily—but all too often these are such tired old clichés as "quiet as a mouse" or "easy as pie."

What is a more original way of describing quiet or easy or loud? Ask some children to tell you, and you may get such suggestions as these from first graders:

"Quiet as a snowball," said one. "Quiet as a snail," said another. But the one they all liked best was "quiet as grass growing."

Or try colors. What kind of blue is this—the blue of the sky on a sunny day? The blue of Betsy's eyes? Here are some of the children's explanations of color:

"white as a pillow case"
"white as a wedding grown"
"yellow as a banana skin"
"yellow as a baby chick at Easter"
"green as a bullfrog"
"black as a witch"

Children also enjoy working with similes. Their own use of figurative language often sparkles with imagination.

"Drum beats," wrote a second grader, "are like heavy rain hitting the window."

"A winding road is like a ribbon in the wind," wrote another. To his classmates the winding road suggested a roller coaster, an electric eel under water, a coiled snailshell.

Anyone experimenting with poetic imagery, will enjoy such poems as "The Freight Train" by Rowena Bastin Bennett:

"He moves like a snake that has grown too fat,
One that has swallowed a frog and a rat;"

And "City" by Langston Hughes who tells of the city that

"Goes to bed
Hanging lights
About its head."

and that old favorite of children—Vachel Lindsay's "The Moon's the North Wind's Cooky."

Having written figures of speech of their own, children become more sensitive to the figurative language of these poets. They easily become attuned to the music of poetry and respond enthusiastically. Much inspiration for this kind of activity can come from that remarkable paperback by Nina Willis Walter, *Let Them Write Poetry.*

May I tell you about my class at Lehigh University when my sixteen inservice teachers told of experiencing the magic of poetry with their children?

I should explain that each week I try to introduce some little project for them to do in class which they in turn might introduce to their pupils during the following week. Last week we listened to the recording of John Ciardi and his three children reading poetry from his book, *You Read to Me, I'll Read to You.* We had also talked about the need to sharpen our powers of observation so that with our own eyes we can take good color pictures and develop them into words on paper. This is a mechanical thing, of course—any good camera can do it graphically. But there is a step beyond, which cannot be taken by the camera—that is the step we call imagination.

I had brought to class a painting of a weatherbeaten old house surrounded by scrubby bushes and bare patches of eroded soil. All of us could see the colors and the form—we were able to observe. But what does that old building suggest to the imagination? It it like something else, something that is otherwise quite different? For a few minutes there were troubled faces in that group of teachers as they stared at the picture and tried to record their imaginings. Then as pencils began to race across the notebook pages, the frowns seemed to vanish, and I knew that my students were off. When they read their jottings, we heard things like this:

"It's like an old man, tired and gray,
Resting at the close of day."

"The house stands like an island
in a sea of green."

"It's like a watchman
who stands guard in any season."

That was last week.

Yesterday my teachers came early, and even before our starting time they were swapping experiences. One brought in her tape recorder to play for us the tape made by her pupils after they had heard John Ciardi and his children reading poetry. The first recordings were of the old duh-*da*-duh-*da*-duh-*da*-duh-*da* variety—sing-songy, monotonous, dreadful. "It made us all realize we needed to read more musically," said the teacher. And then she played us some later recordings in which the better readers had reduced their breakneck speed so that they could give meaning to the lines through correct inflection and intonation. (It was a surprise to all of us that the slow readers read poetry with more appropriate phrasing and feeling than the advanced readers. "That was a real shock to my advanced group," reported the fourth grade teacher, "but it did a lot to raise the morale of the slow group.")

Another teacher told of the painting she had used with her fifth graders much as we had used that of the weathered old house in my class. Her children decided that only one of them got real imagination into what he wrote about the painting. "They made me promise we could do it again," she said, "and I never thought that would happen."

Another teacher reported that her fifth graders have been writing a poem a day for several weeks. Each day the group decides what the theme will be for the next day's poetic attempt. "Tomorrow they will write about the clouds," she said. "Today it was zoo animals."

All of the teachers spoke of children's eagerness to write and to recopy. "You can't have spelling mistakes in a poem," one boy was reported to have said, and his classmates agreed.

Two teachers who are in the same school dittoed the poems written by their children and swapped the pages. Fourth graders were amazed that some of the rather tough fifth grade boys had created such lovely poetic images. Fifth graders said, "You mean fourth graders can write like that?" The effect seemed to be beneficial at both age levels.

What do we need to start this kind of enthusiasm and creativity?

More than anything, I think it requires teachers who have learned to love poetry—who have read and read and read, who have listened to their own reading of poetry as revealed by the tape recorder, and who have themselves participated in the poetic act by (1) sharpening their own powers of observation, (2) going on to stretch their imagination in poetic imagery, and (3) then responding with feeling, for feeling can follow imagination as naturally as imagination follows observation.

For all of this you need a choice collection of books of poetry—and there are literally dozens of them. I think it means, too, that we must show teachers how to encourage children's participation. The only way I know to do this is to get teachers participating themselves—observing, imagining, feeling, recording their creations, comparing these to the work of poets better known than they are, and always reading and reaching out to capture for themselves the magic of poetry.

Factors Related to Symbolization

Walter B. Waetjen

If one takes a searching look at what schools are about and if one sloughs off the fancy jargon and gets right down to the meat of the matter, what is revealed is that education is concerned with the matter of learning to symbolize. It matters little whether this is in the language arts or social studies or the industrial arts. Unless a youngster can symbolize and symbolize well, he is just not going to do well in school because school is a verbal, symbolic, linguistic experience. Consequently, it is important for me to think about how pupils come to learn symbols and how they come to use them. If a school experience is anything but learning to use symbols, then it is nothing. Unless we can teach youngsters to symbolize properly, then we might as well close the doors of the schools and go home.

I would like to discuss three processes in symbolization and the way that pupils learn to use symbols. These processes are a lot like electricity; you know they are there, but you cannot see them because they are psychological processes. It is only good style that I define a symbol so that no one is confused about terms. A symbol is something that stands for something else which may or may not be present at the moment. Therefore, the fact that I can use the words "football stadium" means that they are symbols because at this instant a football stadium is not present. Likewise, I could point to a map which may be projected on a screen and call it a symbol because it stands for a territory that it represents which is not present. The number of other examples is limitless. In education we have suddenly enamored computers as data processors, when actually we know full well that the best processor is a learner. The original data processing machine is the ego, the self of a person. It takes in information, it handles that information, and transmits it. What are some of the means, methods, modes, or processes by which we handle information especially when we are learning to symbolize? Three of those will be discussed. The processes are as follows: differentiation, fidelity, and expansion. I am also going to discuss their counterparts; for example, differentiation has its counterpart in diffusion, fidelity its counterpart in distortion, and expansion has the counterpart in constriction. What has been said so far is something like this—that the whole essence of developing symbols is the process of binding objects and events and feelings into some kind of meaning or symbol. That is the crux of the educational process. Further, any event, object, or feeling that cannot be tied securely to a symbol by a learner has limited or practically no educational value to that learner. If a pupil cannot tie an event that happens in the classroom or a feeling or an object or whatever it may be to some symbol, then it has no educational value to him, and we might as well not have even started that teaching-learning experience.

When a learner starts in on any new area of knowledge, one of the first things he must do with this great mass of information about which he knows nothing is to begin to pick away at it so as to differentiate some parts of it. He has to get some "handles" on it, a toehold, and pull out enough of it so that he can begin to understand it. That is the first important process in symbolization—differentiation. It makes no difference whether it is reading or mathematics or whatever we are talking about—the differentiation process still applies. In separating these things, it helps for him to have as wide a variety of experience as possible, because the wider and greater his depth of experience, then the more likely he is to make this first differentiation which in turn leads to further differentiation. On the other hand, the narrower the experience, the less depth, the less breadth and richness to his experience, then the more diffuse becomes the differentiation process. These are the two ends of the continuum: clear-cut differentiation from the mass on the one hand; on the other hand, diffuse differentiation.

In the case of diffusion, one cannot really tell whether it is part of, the same as, or whether it is different from the total mass. The lack of effective differentiating processes in large segments of our child population provides one of the greatest challenges to public education. How do you hope to teach reading to a child who is unable to find any kind of "hook" in his environment, any kind of toehold in his experience on which he can hang a word, a sentence, a paragraph, or any other expression of language? For example, how do you teach a lower class Negro child to conceptualize a book in which the father is portrayed returning from work, playing ball with him in the yard, sipping a cocktail, sitting down to a family dinner that is complete with conversation and dessert? It seems to me it is virtually impossible, because there is not the mass from which he can begin to differentiate.

There are ways that we can help youngsters facilitate the differentiation process. One of those is to provide opportunities for a wide variety of experience. Clearly, this is what the Higher Horizons Project was about. It was designed to give motor experience through coming in contact with the world through the fingertips. But then comes the second thing that we need to do and often fail to do. After a youngster has had motor experience, we must encourage him to verbalize what he has experienced. It is not enough to see, to touch, to smell, or to listen. Pupils must be encouraged to *talk about* what they touched, saw, or heard. Many of you have observed the teacher who has brought a group of youngsters back from a field trip and begins to ply them with questions. How many did you see? What color were they? What was his name? Did you ever see any others like that? Who was doing that? Notice that all these questions are cognitive in nature. They are at a highly intellectual level which is good. But we rarely go to the other dimension of learning which is the affective side. Rarely does a teacher ask a youngster, How did you feel about that? How did you feel when you saw the 16-ton press stamp out the whole top of an automobile in one operation? How might it be done differently? Rarely do we ask pupils to evaluate any experience. These two great dimensions of learning are equally important: the cognitive being the straight intellectual content, and the affective being the feeling side of learning. One without the other does a disservice to the learner. Yet, in our schools, we put so much emphasis on the cognitive aspects of reading, arithmetic, social studies, and just about every subject, that we forget all about the affective.

There is another way to facilitate differentiation which is a very simple one done with younger children. One of their great tasks in learning language is not just to learn the words but to learn how to *shape* the words. They are way down there and we are way up here, so when they look at us they cannot really see us shaping the words. It helps for the teacher to get down at eye level with them and give them the opportunity to see the full mouth movement in the formation of words. This is rarely done because we assume that hearing is enough. One other way of helping youngsters to differentiate in a way that they love is to place a number of different objects into a paper bag without their having seen these objects. Then they reach a hand in the bag, and by handling the objects they have to identify them. The neat relationship between motor experience (kinesthetic experience) and verbalization should be noted. In studies of curiosity, it has been shown that boys are considerably more curious in this kind of activity than are girls.

The second of these symbolization processes is fidelity and its counterpart distortion. It is not enough to differentiate an object, an event, or person; what one must do is symbolize those things differentiated with *accuracy*—that is the fidelity dimension. Accuracy and fidelity will be used interchangeably. Differentiation by itself is not enough; the material must be differentiated with accuracy or fidelity. One must be sure that what is pulled out of the mass is accurately pulled out. When a child uses the word "barn," it must really mean that structure in which we house and feed animals. If it doesn't, then symbols are useless. The fidelity-distortion concept is one that tells us something about whether a person is mentally healthy on the one hand and whether or not he has a learning disability on the other hand. A pupil can learn to differentiate himself from the environment and from others, but the fidelity dimension is concerned with the accuracy with which he separates some things in the environment from some other things. We have to be careful on this score because no one is completely accurate in differentiating symbols. The fact that the symbols are always a little bit different from the real thing is a perfectly healthy observation because we are unique human beings. On the other hand, if we are too unique, then it means we are removed from reality. One may distort things so badly that he is not in touch with the real world, and it also means that he is having difficulty in learning. The pupil who has marked tendencies to distort his symbols needs individual help because often he is having learning difficulties. The school's job is to provide all kinds of learning experiences in which symbols can be correctly related to the actual object, event, or person. The teacher's job, then, is to provide real objects or events. With culturally disadvantaged children, we talk about objects, events, other people, and then the youngster is supposed to take these symbols that we give them through speech and turn them into his own symbols. We might as well be using Chinese in our teaching for all the sense it makes. What we need to do for very young children and for those children with learning disabilities is to present them with the real objects, the real people to the extent it is possible, and the real events to help them to bind symbols to these things accurately.

The third point to be made on this matter of symbolization is called extension, and the other end of the continuum is constriction. Learning is the business of expanding symbolization processes by developing new concepts and new metaphors. Instead of concept we might use the word "organizer" since that is what a concept, a principle, or a generalization is. It organizes facts and puts them together into a neat bundle. When a person has developed certain kinds of organizers, he can expand these by relating them to other facts and other subsumed symbols. Such a person can be said to be pushing himself forward. On the other hand, he is constricted if he is applying too much of a one-to-one relationship between an object and/or an event and a certain meaning or symbol. One of the best ways to help youngsters to expand rather than constrict their use of symbols is to introduce humor into the curriculum in a conscious and planned way. The humor that I am speaking of is punning. For example, most youngsters who grow up in our suburban middle class culture think of charging in terms of going to the store and using a charge plate when making a purchase. If the youngster has only this constricted notion of what the symbol "charging" means, he is not in a very good position to really expand or grow as a person. Not long ago youngsters were telling the so-called elephant jokes, one of which was the following: How do you stop a herd of elephants from charging? The answer: take away their credit cards. The interesting part of it is that is a form of word play where you allow the word "charging" to change context abruptly. Therefore we are communicating to a youngster that he should bind an event into a symbol but not bind it too tightly. Education is usually so deadly dull that many people think as soon as humor is introduced we have sold education down the river. If we use humor, and especially punning, and change the context within which words are used, then it suggests to the learner that he must bind events or objects to a symbol but must not bind them too tightly. Another way to accomplish expansion is by role playing because it gives the learner an opportunity to step outside himself and be someone different, even if only for a moment. That is known as role rehearsal. By rehearsing a different role, one is finding out how he can attach different symbols, not to a book, but to himself.

Sex Differences in Learning

Why is it that there are about three times as many boys who are underachievers as there are girls? An underachiever is not a slow learner, but someone who is entirely capable of learning although he is not. Why is it that 98 percent of the youngsters who are in speech clinics for functional disorders, such as stuttering, stammering, and other problems of articulation, are boys? Teachers have difficulty recalling the name of one girl pupil who had a functional speech problem but have no difficulty in naming boys who stuttered or had other articulation problems. When it comes to reading, a modest estimate is that there are about four times as many boys who are considered reading problems or poor readers as there are girls who have reading disabilities. Why are there twice as many boys who are school dropouts as girls? All of this suggests that somehow or other our school experience is not doing the job with boys that it is doing with girls. Unfortunately, we seem to take the position that the school is a sex-neutral institution. As soon as a youngster enters school, we seem to think that his sex does not play a part in the way that he copes, adjusts, and learns. Yet, the evidence suggests strongly that one's sex does influence the way in which a person learns. There is one area in which boys and girls are strikingly different in terms of skills and abilities. The language area is where girls have marked superiority over boys. From the first day youngsters enter kindergarten or first grade, girls are already superior in their ability to use language. Consequently, they receive more rewards from teachers, from classmates, and of course, from mother and father.

Clark (1) examined the abilities of 69,000 pupils in 48 states to determine whether there were any observable differences in intelligence and in the language abilities of boys and girls. He used the California Test of Mental Maturity and the California Achievement Test in grades 3, 5, and 8. He found that the California Test of Mental Maturity indicates that there are no sex biases. This suggests that boys have abilities equal to those of girls. However, on the California Achievement Test, girls were better in the mechanics of English, spelling, and in reading. His conclusion was that in basic skill areas of language, mechanics of English, and spelling, girls do consistently better. The Teachers Manual on the Academic Promise Test (3) for grades 6 to 9 states that in language usage, the girls consistently and progressively from grade to grade scored higher than boys. Yet, there is only one set norms. It is exceedingly rare to find a test of spelling, reading, or any other language ability in which there are separate norms for boys and girls. Pauk (2) used three hundred sixth graders to determine whether different parts of an intelligence test contributed to the total score achieved by the subjects. He used 75 above-average boy readers, 75 below-average boy readers, 75 above-average girl readers, and 75 below-average girl readers. It was found that the language parts of most intelligence tests contribute 80 percent to the total test score in the case of girl readers and only 37 percent of the total score in the case of boys. Abstract reasoning and numerical ability tests contribute 11 percent to the total score in the case of girl readers but 42 percent in the case of boy readers. While girls are markedly superior to boys in their ability to use language, boys have some superiority over the girls in mathematics and science. The cognitive skill that underlies mathematics and science is abstract or analytical thinking.

Some generalizations about sex differences in learning are in order. One of them is *not* in terms of general ability or intellect, but girls are superior in verbal areas of reading, spelling, language usage, and word fluency. Boys, on the other hand, are somewhat superior in math and science. Boys also have a much more negative self-image as a learner than do girls. Total separation of the sexes for instruction is not the answer to better achievement. However, we should experiment with separating boys and girls for reading instruction in the primary grades, even though it is not enough to separate them and then teach just as we did before. We have to do two things after grouping primary pupils by sex. One of them is use different reading materials for boys than girls. Reading materials that are normally used in schools depict boys as being passive, when their socialization is that they should be aggressive and dominant. The second thing to be done after they are grouped is to help boys to use their better analytical thinking skills. There are ways of doing that by getting them to compare and by helping them to relate their personal experience to the reading material.

Language Patterns of the Disadvantaged

For several years it has been fashionable to discuss the culturally disadvantaged learner. The present discourse is no exception except that it focuses on one aspect of the culturally disadvantaged learner, his language abilities. In 1961, the author conducted a "study" as contrasted with a more rigorous research. Fifty-two sixth grade culturally disadvantaged pupils were placed in a situation presented with a social problem which they had to work out. Small groups of three pupils were told that one of them was to have an opportunity to go to a TV studio and see Ranger Joe. They were asked to work out a decision as to which one of the three was to be nominated. The discussions were tape recorded.

Analyses of the tapes revealed certain things that should be of interest to people who have responsibilities in the language arts. A major finding was that these youngsters typically spoke in short, incomplete, and grammatically incorrect sentences. Rarely did they finish a sentence, rarely was it grammatically correct, rarely was it of substantive length. It is of interest to relate this finding to the symbolization processes mentioned earlier. It indicated that these pupils had not clearly differentiated objects, events, and people and tied them neatly into symbols. Another finding was that there was a repetitive use of conjunctions. In other words, the pupils were using word symbols in short bursts all stitched together with conjunctions.

Of even greater interest to the language arts teacher was finding an almost complete absence of modifiers in the language of culturally disadvantaged pupils. A search for adverbs and adjectives disclosed practically none with the exception of the word *very*. What do modifiers do to language? The answer must be related to the first symbolization process of differentiation. Modifiers differentiate and give nuances of meaning which are fine rather than gross differentiations. They give richness and depth to one's language and thinking. Conversely, the absence of modifiers indicates that disadvantaged children have neither richness nor depth in symbolic processes.

Typically, the pupils spoke in the active mood. One of them might say, "Man, that's living!" Conceivably, when a person uses the active mood, he is really telling us that he cannot really reflect on his experience. In turn, that suggests he will have difficulty in evaluating or reflecting as well as in thinking ahead and planning. They have difficulty evaluating and planning because they are oriented and live in the present which their language indicates clearly. Finally, when one listened for the actual symbols and asked himself the nature of the messages being transmitted, no immediate answer was forthcoming. The symbols themselves (the words) were not carrying the message. The emotion or inflection of the voice was carrying the message. If symbols are not being used adequately and emotion is carrying the message, then one cannot very well branch out, broaden, expand, and learn better. It would do not an earthly bit of good with these youngsters to give them more grammar, more writing, or more reading. They need first to be presented with real objects and real events and real people. They need to be helped in differentiating with fidelity and then expanding. They need to be given real experiences; then they have to be asked to talk about them to compare one thing with another. But just to get them to write more words and to talk more words without the background experience would be utterly useless.

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Epilogue

Statewide leadership in improvement of education—what does this mean? How can it be accomplished effectively? Most state education agencies now have appointed a specialist in English and/or in reading education. Responsibility for statewide leadership has been assigned to this specialist. Yet, guidelines for the way he might work productively are scarce. No college or university provides training for this position. While the professional literature offers suggestions for supervisors and directors of curriculum, there is a paucity of information on what a state specialist in English and reading might do.

The Association of State English and Reading Specialists will undertake activities that contribute information helpful to specialists assigned responsibility for statewide leadership. To this end, the Association will promote sound programs of instruction throughout the United States. It will offer a means for exchange of ideas among its members. It will provide leadership in the pursuit of new and effective teaching methods. It will study problems relating to English and reading programs and seek solutions to them. It will explore ways to develop local leadership. It will promote improved communication among colleges and universities training teachers of English and reading, specialists in these areas in state education agencies, and local schools. The Association intends to assist in strengthening the statewide leadership role in such a way as to encourage improved English and reading programs for students.

The Association of State English and Reading Specialists will maintain a close working relationship with the U.S. Office of Education. It will transmit ideas generated locally. It will help identify local needs and serve as a sounding board for local reaction to federal programs. It will help interpret federal programs to school staffs and to the public. In these ways, the Association can help strengthen federal programs intended to spark improved English and reading instruction.

The Association also will work closely with other teachers' organizations concerned with English and reading education. It will exchange ideas with these organizations. It will cooperate in activities that encourage promising instructional programs. It will assist them in enlightening the public concerning sound instructional practices.

The Association will sponsor meetings, studies, publications, and special projects designed to develop students' thinking and language skills and deepen their understandings of content in such a way that there is better balance and increased integration between skill and concept development; promote more positive student attitudes toward themselves and their language; increase student appreciation and use of language arts skills and content; replace formularized educational programs with programs that reflect an awareness of the assets and needs of particular teachers and particular students, that regard teachers and students first and foremost as human beings—education being developed with due regard for the welfare of their uniquely human personalities. To the extent that it is able to accomplish these goals, the Association of State English and Reading Specialists can justify its existence.

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